

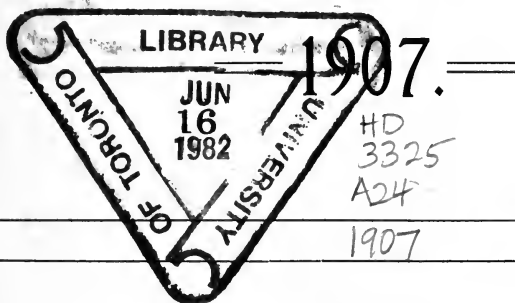
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.. THE ..
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
SOCIETIES LIMITED.

ANNUAL

.. FOR ..



PUBLISHED BY
THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED,
1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER; and
THE SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED,
MORRISON STREET, GLASGOW.

PREFACE.

IN selecting the articles for the present volume of our "Annual" we have been guided, as in previous issues, by a desire to enlighten discussion of topics of present-day interest by securing contributions from writers with intimate knowledge of their subjects. Whilst a considerable space has been devoted to the consideration of questions affecting the social and political aspects of British life, we have also deemed it well to extend our purview over foreign countries. We recognise that in a knowledge of other peoples, of their customs and habits, of the bonds of common human interests between them and ourselves, lies the most potent antidote to that narrow-minded parochialism that conceives other nations than British to be, if not barbarians, at least inferior in all respects to its own country, conventions, and customs.

We may, however, give home affairs the first place, and in this connection Professor Long writes upon "The English Village: What it is and what it ought to be," in a suggestive and sympathetic style. He deplores the stagnation of social life, the isolation of class from class, and indicates lines upon which a genuine reform might proceed, and which if adopted would, without doubt, do much to stem the constant migration to the towns.

Miss Mc.Millan's article on "Domestic Economy of the British Home" treats of subjects that lie close to the hearts of all whose conception of true education is the development of character. With a deep insight into the importance of home influence, she traces the history of the home in Britain from the primitive shelter of two thousand years ago up to present times. Her attitude towards woman's work as affecting domestic life is that "the kingdom of the housewife is a miniature of the outer and larger kingdom of the community or State. The poorest home includes certain departments of work and thought, and all of which are represented in the larger world of the State. Finance, commerce, education, and health—housewives have concerned themselves with these for ages." Our Women's Guilds might do worse than include this article in their syllabuses, so stimulative of thought is it.

In the article on "The Press and its Message" Mr. H. W. Massingham gives us an impartial criticism of modern journalism,

PREFACE.

and compares it with the newspaper work of twenty years ago. He considers one of the gravest defects to be the desire to be merely interesting. "Everything is touched in a way—religion, morals, art, science, politics, social problems—but only as the colours succeed each other in a kaleidoscope."

So far as we are aware, no definite pronouncement has been made at any length as to the "Foreign Policy of Democracy." The general tendency of public thought on this subject is to regard the effect of Democracy as limited to the sphere of domestic politics, and for this reason we have secured from Mr. J. Ramsay Macdonald an article dealing with the broader application of the principle. His point of view is that "the spirit of Democracy is international, but its love is for peoples, not for Governments, and it discriminates between the two." We think the article, as a whole, will be found clear, outspoken, and suggestive.

"The Awakening of China," by Mr. Edward Carpenter, demands an earnest perusal. The writer, whose name stands high in the literary world, is a life-long student of the Eastern nations; of this the article yields ample proof. It cannot be read without inspiring both respect and admiration for the wonderful race whose historical records we are told come in a continuous stream for four thousand years past.

The contribution of Mr. Ed. Bernstein on the "Aims and Ideals of the German Workers" deals at some length with the history of working-class movements in Germany, in many respects resembling the history of similar movements in our own country.

Mr. J. Howard Reed writes upon the Gold Fields of South Africa, a topic fruitful of discussion here in England and in the Colony itself. Co-operative opinion, as such, is not likely to concern itself to any extent with the alleged difficulties of the mine-owners' position, but it may be none the worse for reading what Mr. Reed has to say upon the Gold Fields, which expresses decidedly the views of the proprietors.

"The Continued Industrial Evolution," by Mr. J. M. Knight, presents us with the results of diligent research on the part of the author. From all the world over he has collected statistics of trade and agriculture, and embodied them in an article that yields a mental pabulum acceptable to the most insatiable student of economics.

THE COMMITTEE.

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 " Quayside.
 " Pelaw.
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 " Grove Street.
 " Tea Department.
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 Brislington Butter Factory.
 Cardiff Depôt.
 Northampton Saleroom.
 Nottingham Saleroom.
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 Limerick Depôt.
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 Typical Irish Creamery (Bunkay).
 Crumpsall Biscuit, Sweet, &c., Works.
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Leicester Wheatsheaf Boot and Shoe Works.
 " Duns Lane Boot and Shoe Works.
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 Irlam Soap, Candle, and Glycerine Works.
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 Luton Cocoa and Chocolate Works.
 Leeds Clothing and Brush Factory.
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 Silvertown (London) Grocery Productive Factory.
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 Desborough Corset Factory.
 Longsight (Manchester) Printing Works.
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 S.S. "New Pioneer."
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 Kilmarnock Grocery and Provision Warehouse, Grange Place.
 Enniskillen Depôt: Butter, Eggs, and Bacon.
 Drapery Warehouse, Wallace Street, Glasgow.
 Productive Works, Shieldhall, Govan.
 Chambers Street, Edinburgh.
 Calderwood Castle and Estate.

Boot Factory, Shieldhall.
 Cabinet Factory, Shieldhall.
 Printing Department, Shieldhall.
 Tobacco Factory, Shieldhall.
 Confectionery Department, Shieldhall.
 Chemical Department, Shieldhall.
 Dining-rooms and Ready-made Clothing Factory, Shieldhall.
 Chancelot Roller Flour Mills, Edinburgh.
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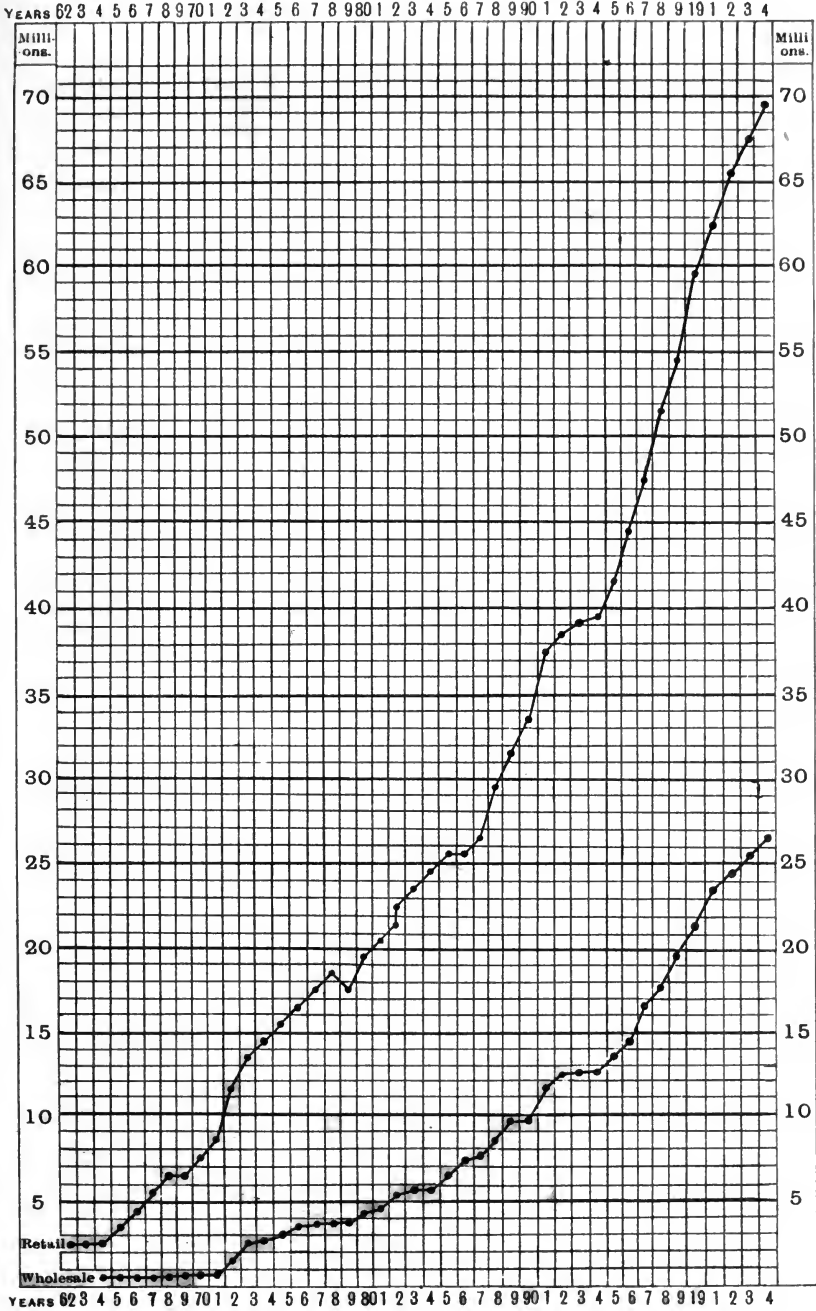
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Comparative Progress of Wholesale and Retail Co-operative Societies in the United Kingdom.



FORTY-THREE YEARS' PROGRESS OF Co-operative Societies in the United Kingdom.

YEARS.	SALES. £
1862	2,333,523
1863	2,673,778
1864	2,836,606
1865	3,373,847
1866	4,462,676
1867	6,001,153
1868	7,122,360
1869	7,353,363
1870	8,201,685
1871	9,463,771
1872	13,012,120
1873	15,639,714
1874	16,374,053
1875	18,499,901
1876	19,921,054
1877	21,390,447
1878	21,402,219
1879	20,382,772
1880	23,248,314
1881	24,945,063
1882	27,541,212
1883	29,336,028

YEARS.	SALES. £
1884	30,424,101
1885	31,305,910
1886	32,730,745
1887	34,483,771
1888	37,793,903
1889	40,674,673
1890	43,731,669
1891	49,024,171
1892	51,060,854
1893	51,803,836
1894	52,110,800
1895	55,100,249
1896	59,951,635
1897	64,956,049
1898	68,523,969
1899	73,533,686
1900	81,020,428
1901	85,872,706
1902	89,772,923
1903	93,384,799
1904	96,263,328

TOTAL SALES IN THE FORTY-THREE YEARS, 1862 TO 1904. } **£1,529,039,864.**

TOTAL PROFITS IN THE FORTY-THREE YEARS, 1862 TO 1904. } **£144,172,945.**

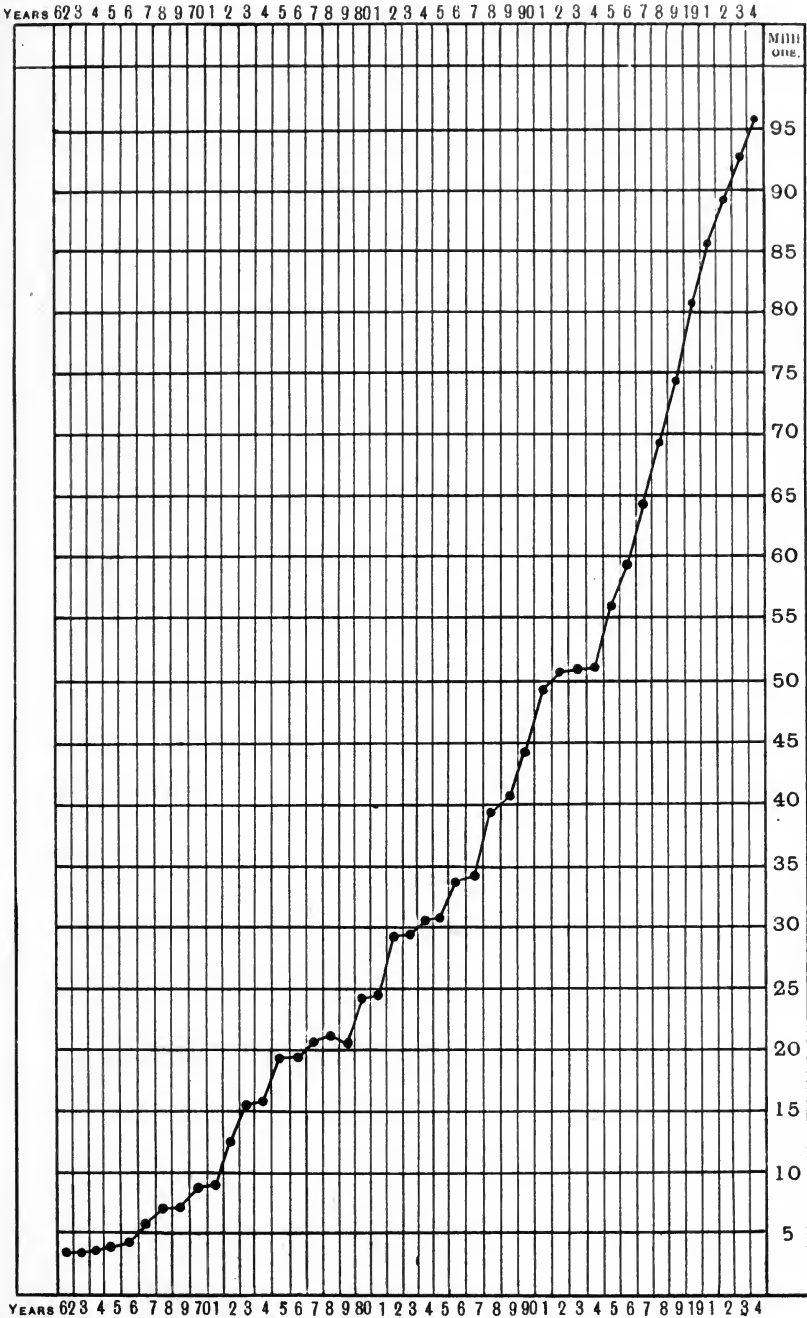
STATISTICAL POSITION OF CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM,

DECEMBER 31ST, 1904.

*Compiled from the Returns made by Societies to the Registrar and
Co-operative Union.*

Number of Members	2,320,116	£
Share Capital		29,337,392
Loan Capital		14,255,546
Sales for 1904		96,263,328
Net Profits for 1904		9,791,740
Devoted to Education, 1904		79,693

Forty-three Years' Progress of Co-operative Societies in the United Kingdom.



FORTY-TWO YEARS' PROGRESS

OF THE

Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited.

YEARS.	SALES. £
1864 (³⁰ Weeks)	51,857
1865	120,754
1866	175,489
1867 (⁶⁵ Weeks)	331,744
1868	412,240
1869	507,217
1870 (⁵³ Weeks)	677,734
1871	758,764
1872	1,153,132
1873	1,636,950
1874	1,964,829
1875	2,247,395
1876 (⁵³ Weeks)	2,697,366
1877	2,827,052
1878	2,705,625
1879 (⁵⁰ Weeks)	2,645,331
1880	3,339,681
1881	3,574,095
1882	4,038,238
1883	4,546,889
1884 (⁵³ Weeks)	4,675,371

YEARS.	SALES. £
1885	4,793,151
1886	5,223,179
1887	5,713,235
1888	6,200,074
1889 (⁵³ Weeks)	7,028,944
1890	7,429,073
1891	8,766,430
1892	9,300,904
1893	9,526,167
1894	9,443,938
1895 (⁵³ Weeks)	10,141,917
1896	11,115,056
1897	11,920,143
1898	12,574,748
1899	14,212,375
1900	16,043,889
1901 (⁵³ Weeks)	17,642,082
1902	18,397,559
1903	19,333,142
1904	19,809,196
1905	20,785,469

TOTAL SALES IN THE FORTY-TWO YEARS, } ... **£286,488,424.**
1864 TO 1905.

TOTAL PROFITS IN THE FORTY-TWO } ... **£4,343,866.**
YEARS, 1864 TO 1905.

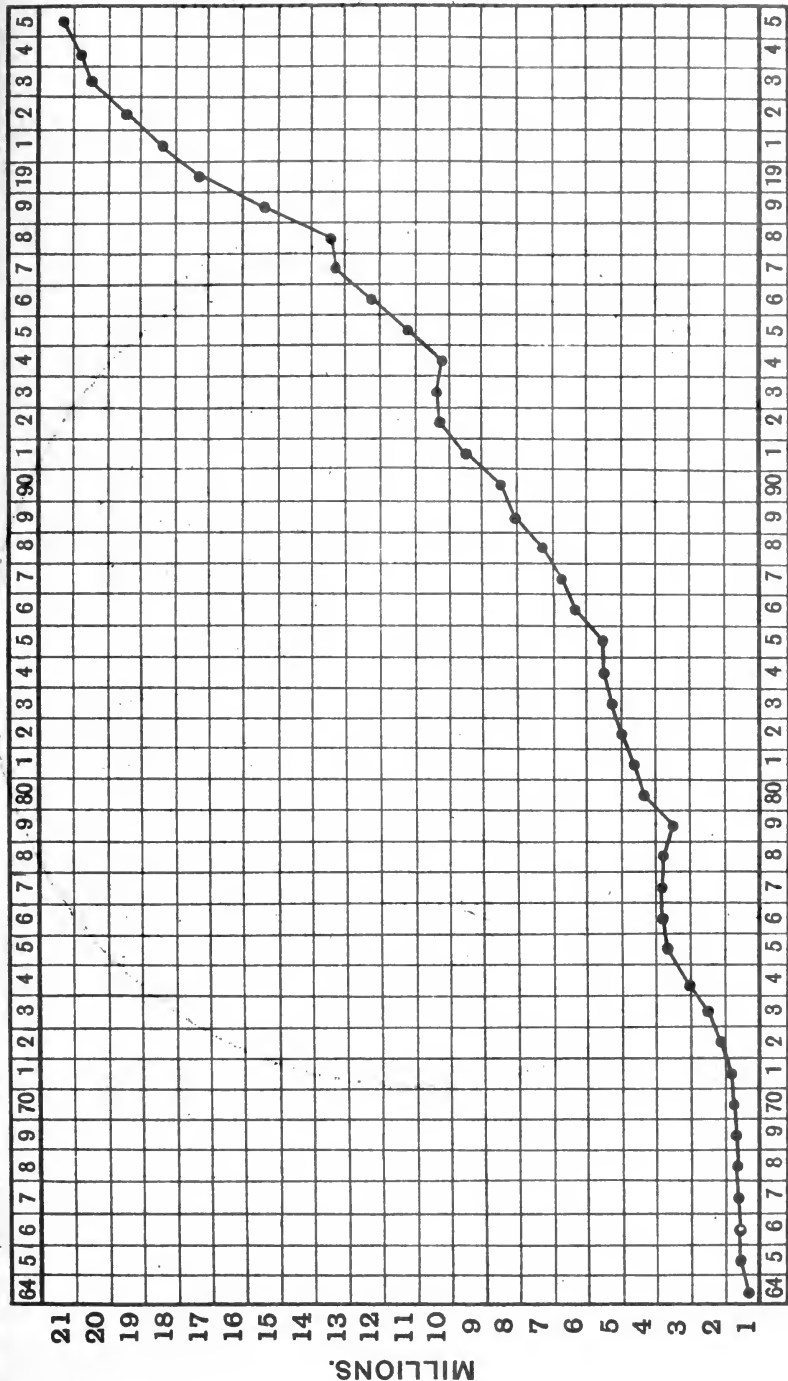
STATISTICAL POSITION OF THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED,

DECEMBER 23RD, 1905.

Number of Societies holding Shares...	1,138
Number of Members belonging to Shareholders,	1,635,527
Share Capital (Paid up)	£ 1,307,341
Loans and Deposits	2,192,681
Reserve Fund—Trade and Bank	329,995
Insurance Fund	559,545
Sales for the Year 1905	20,785,469
Net Profits for Year 1905	304,568

Years

1864



MILLIONS.

MILLIONS.

Forty-two Years' Progress of the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited,
from 1864 to 1905.

Map of the World, showing



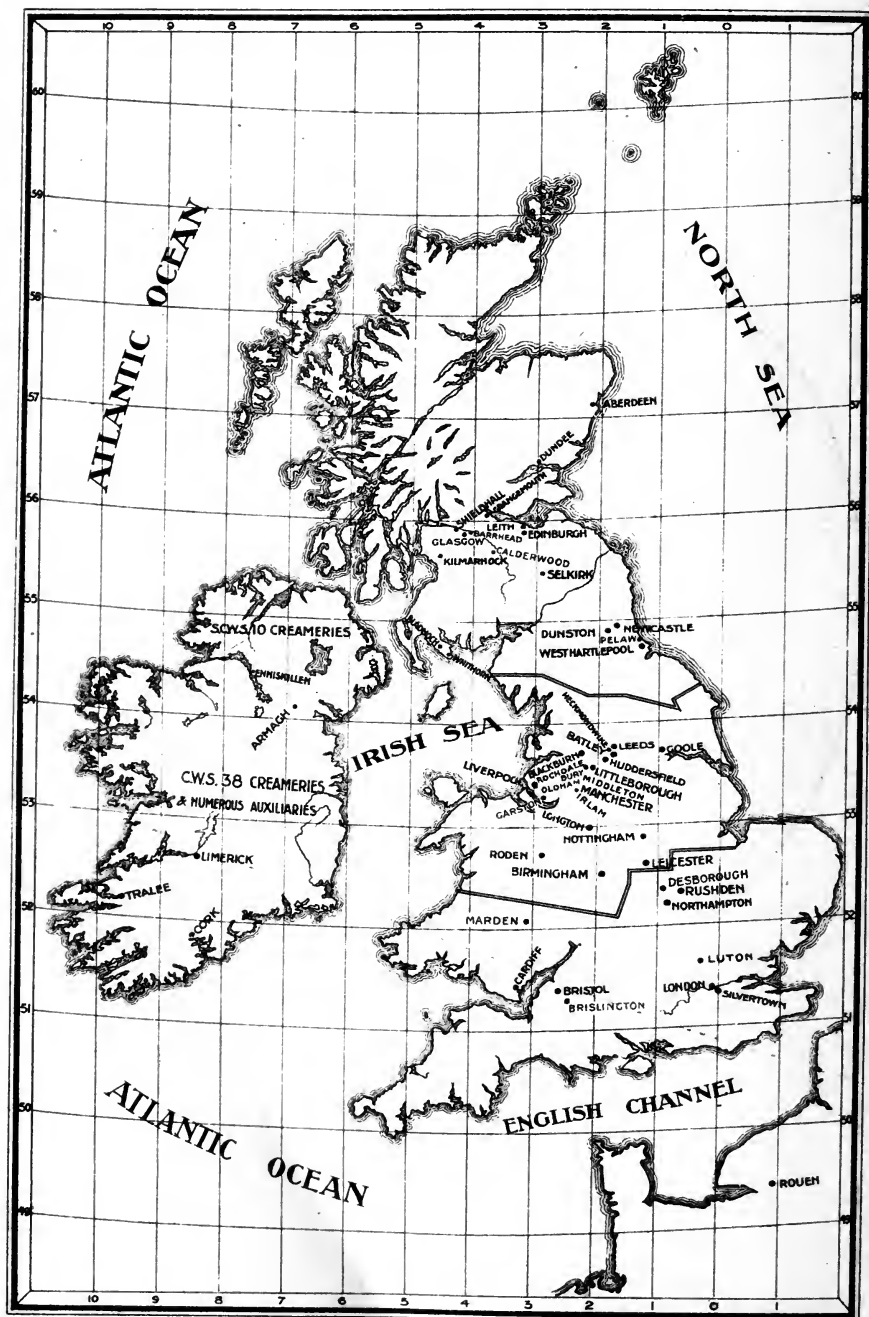
° JOINT WITH SCOTTISH WHOLESALE SOCIETY

Foreign and Colonial Depots.



• JOINT WITH SCOTTISH WHOLESALE SOCIETY
• CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

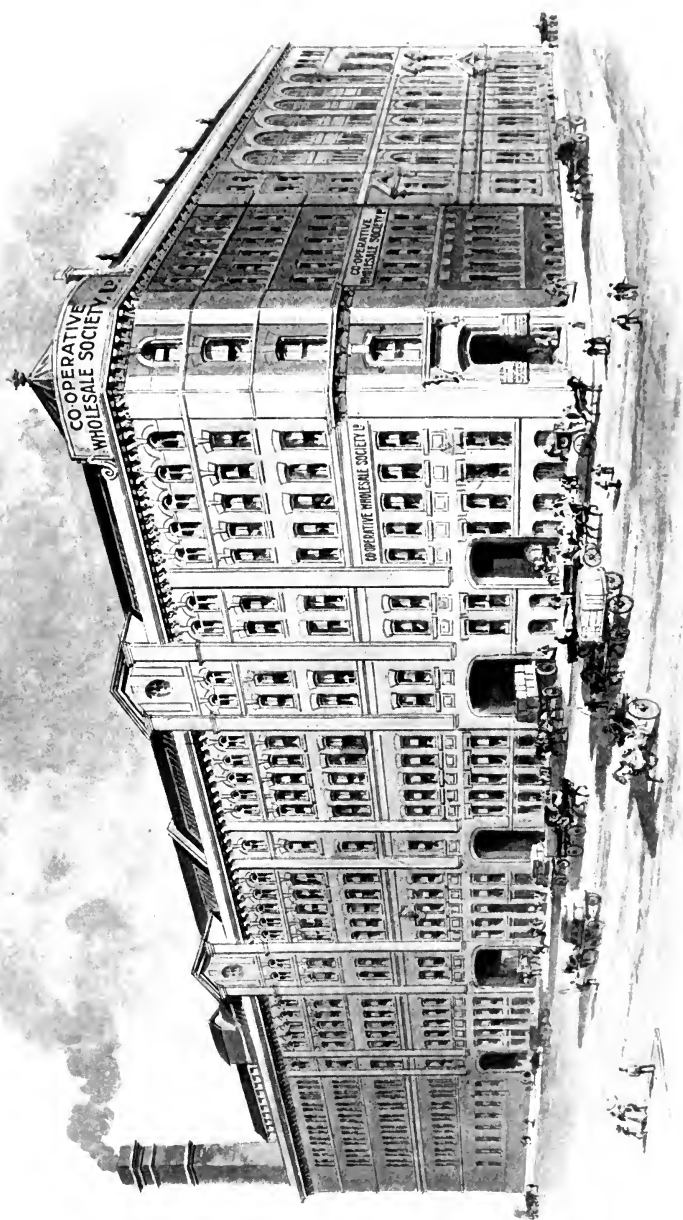
Map of the United Kingdom, showing
Depots, &c., of the Wholesale Societies.



BUSINESS PREMISES,
&c.,

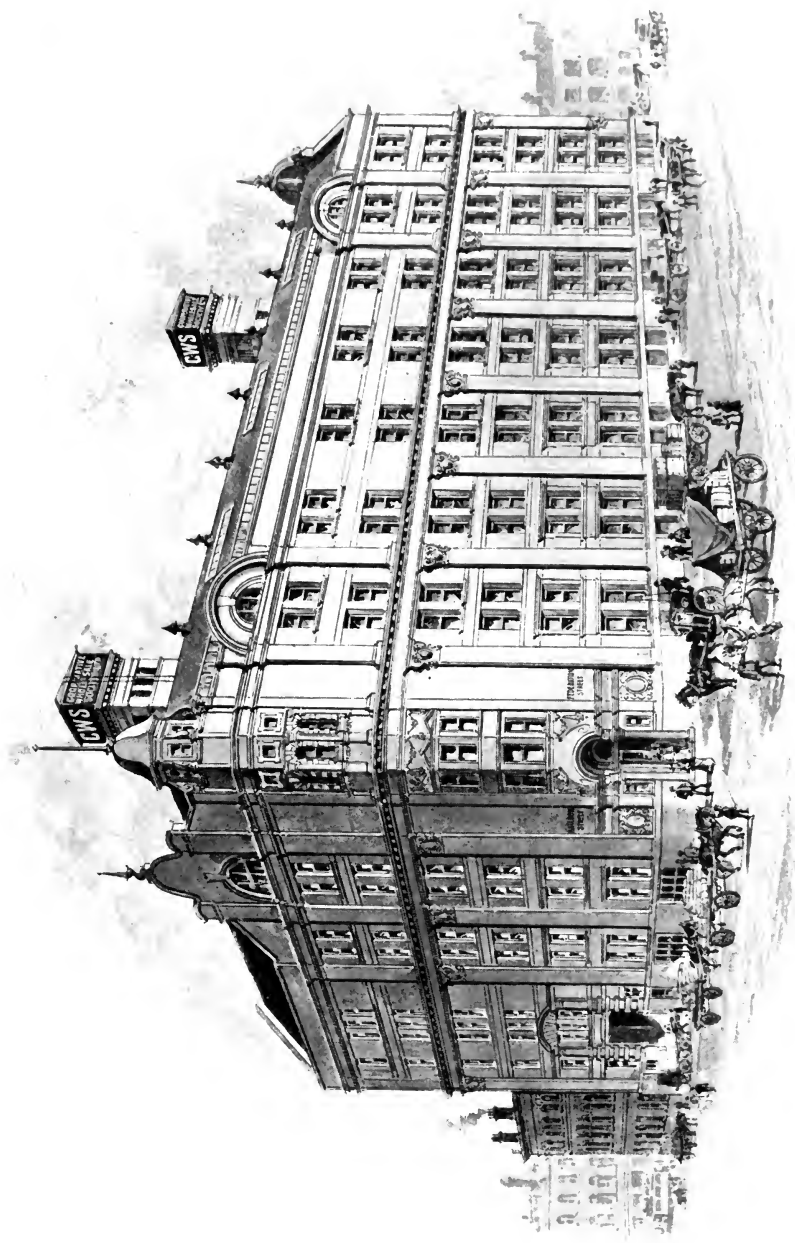
OWNED BY

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
SOCIETY LIMITED.

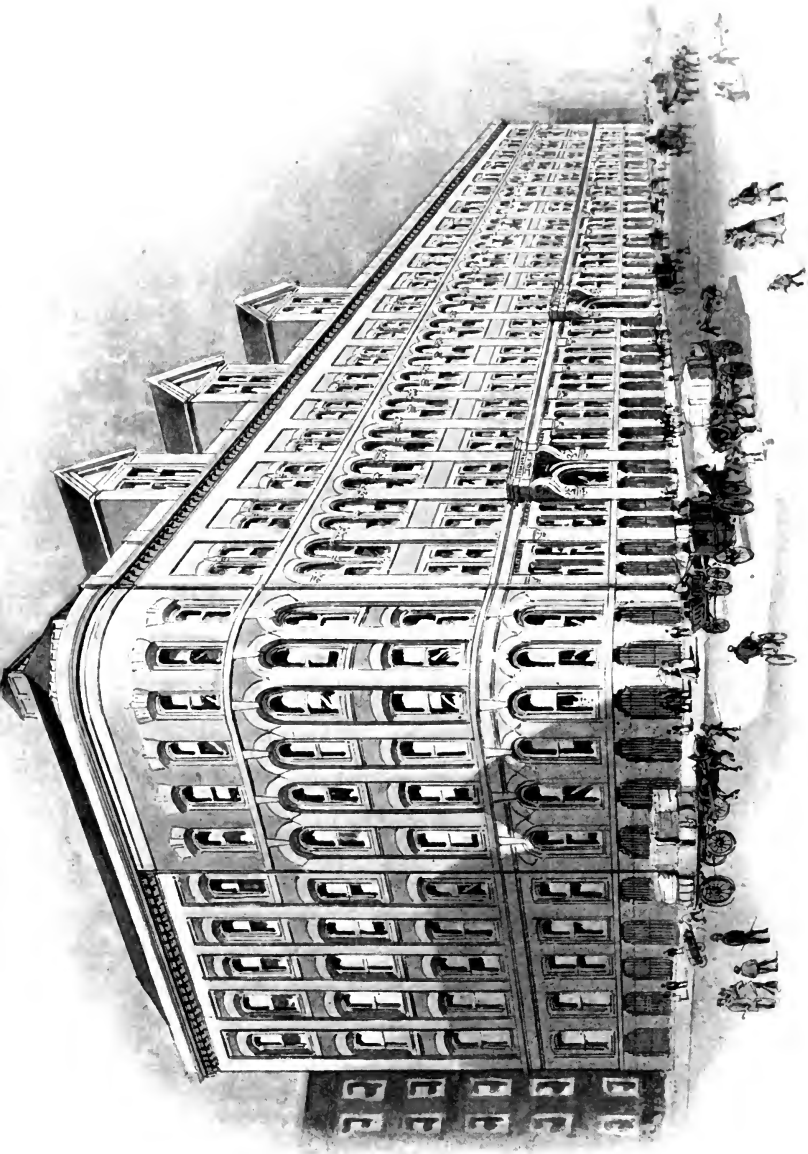


MANCHESTER: BALLOON STREET AND GARDEN STREET.





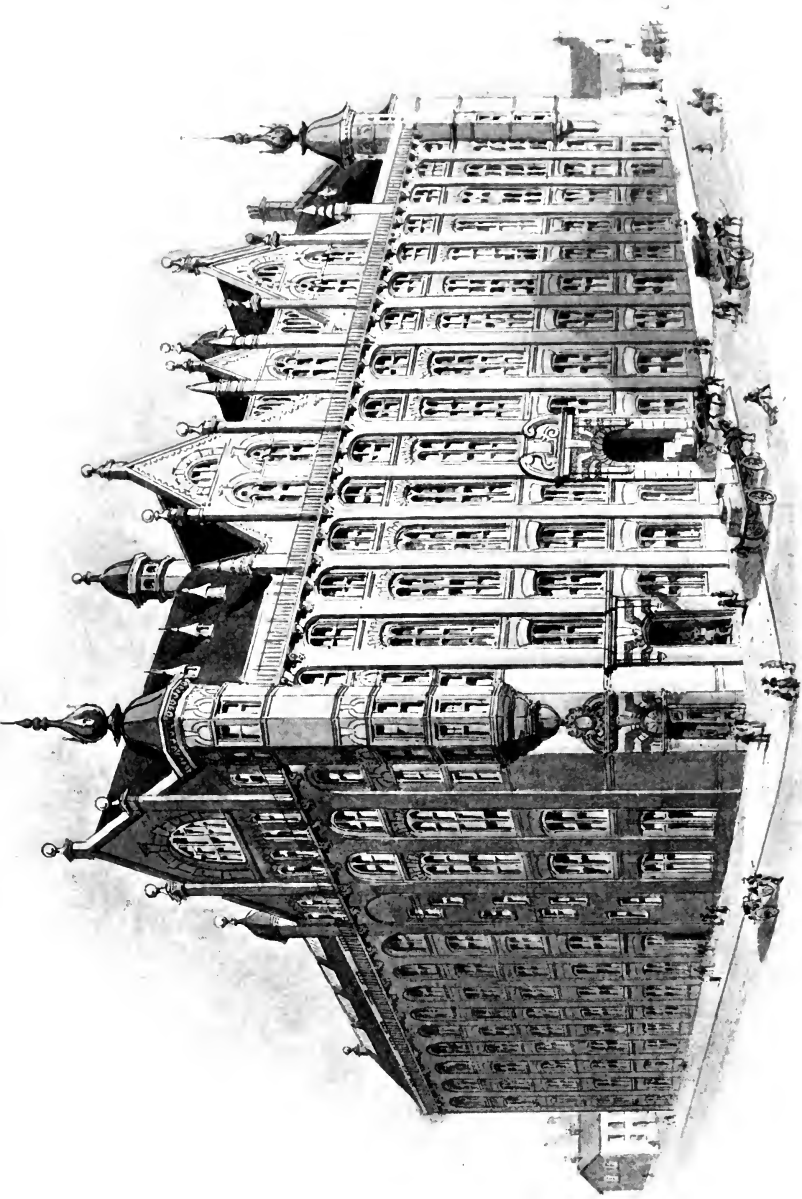
MANCHESTER. NEW DRAPERY WAREHOUSE. RAILCOON STREET.



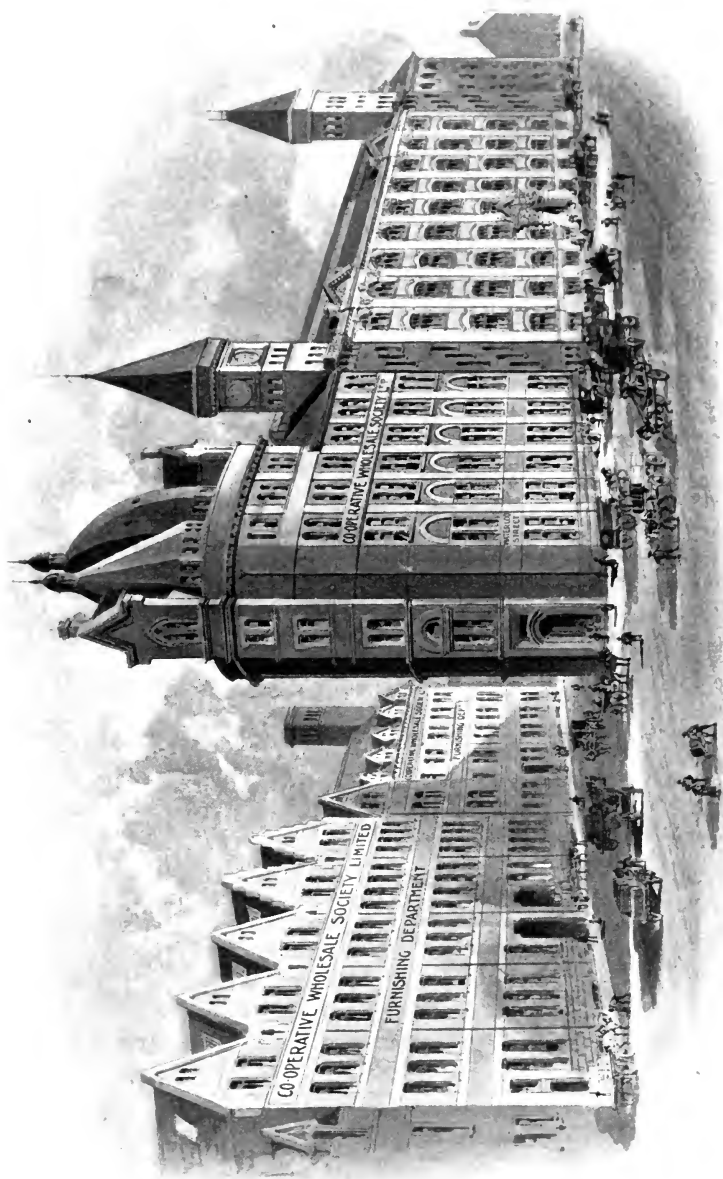
MANCHESTER: DANTZIC STREET.—WOOLLENS, CARPETS, MANTLES, &c.



MANCHESTER: TRAFFORD BACON FACTORY AND WHARF.

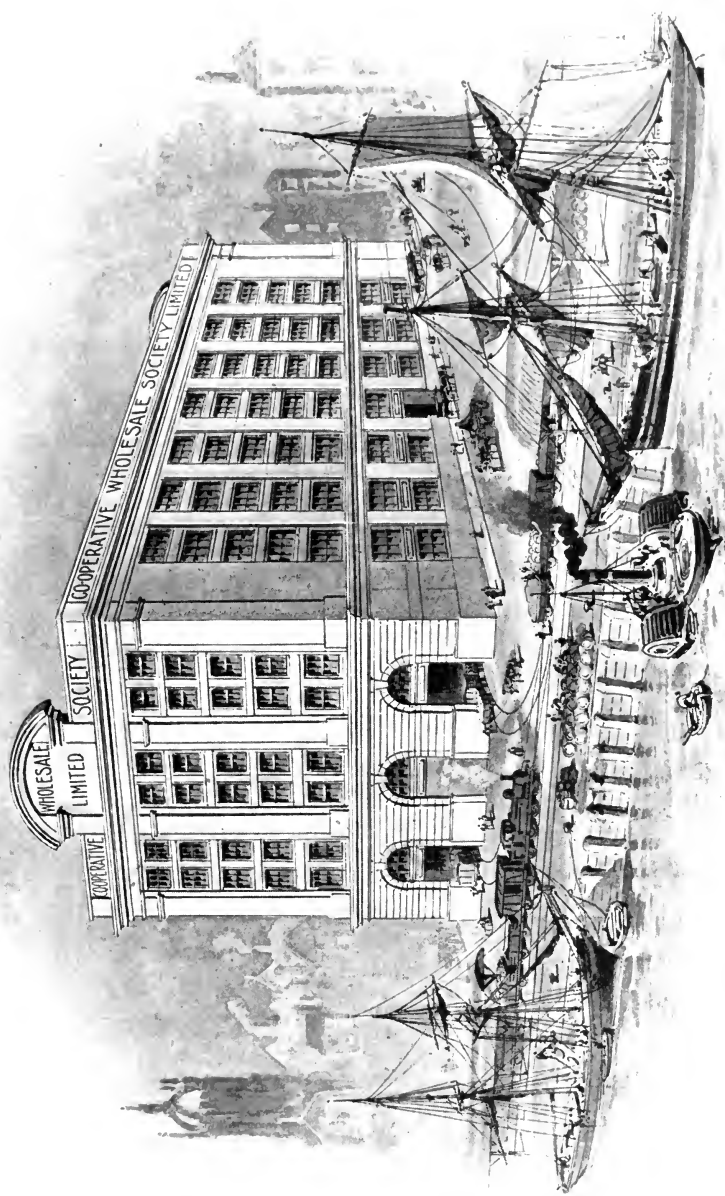


NEWCASTLE: WEST BLANDFORD STREET.

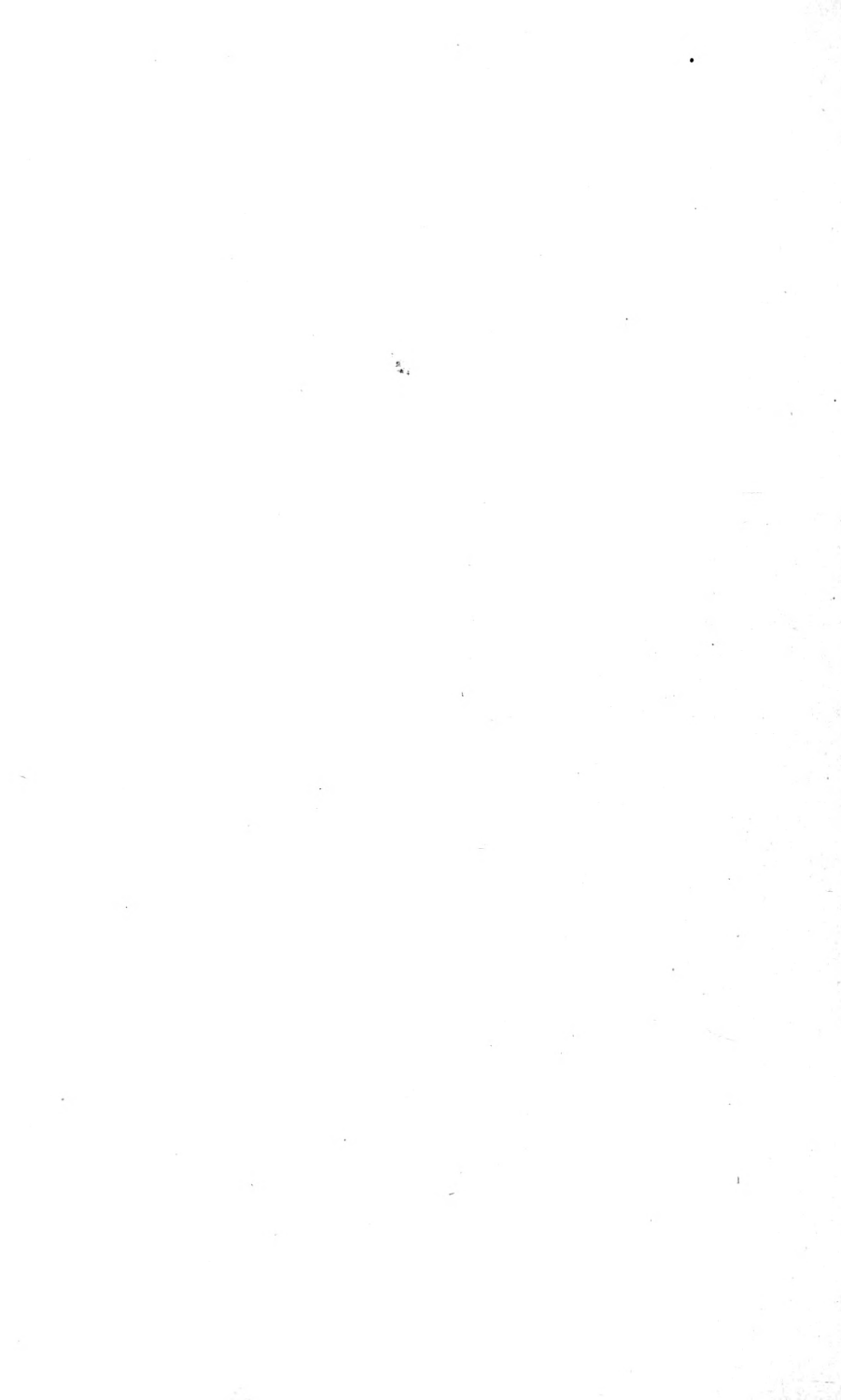


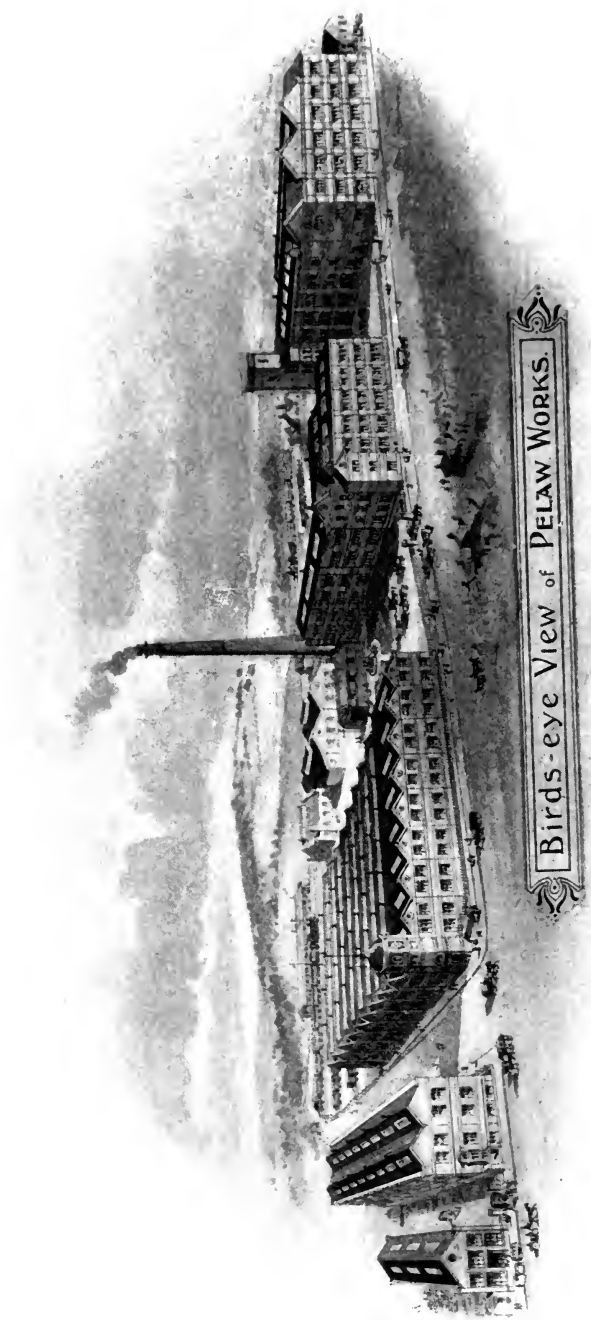
NEWCASTLE: WATERLOO STREET AND THORNTON STREET.





NEWCASTLE: QUAYSIDE.

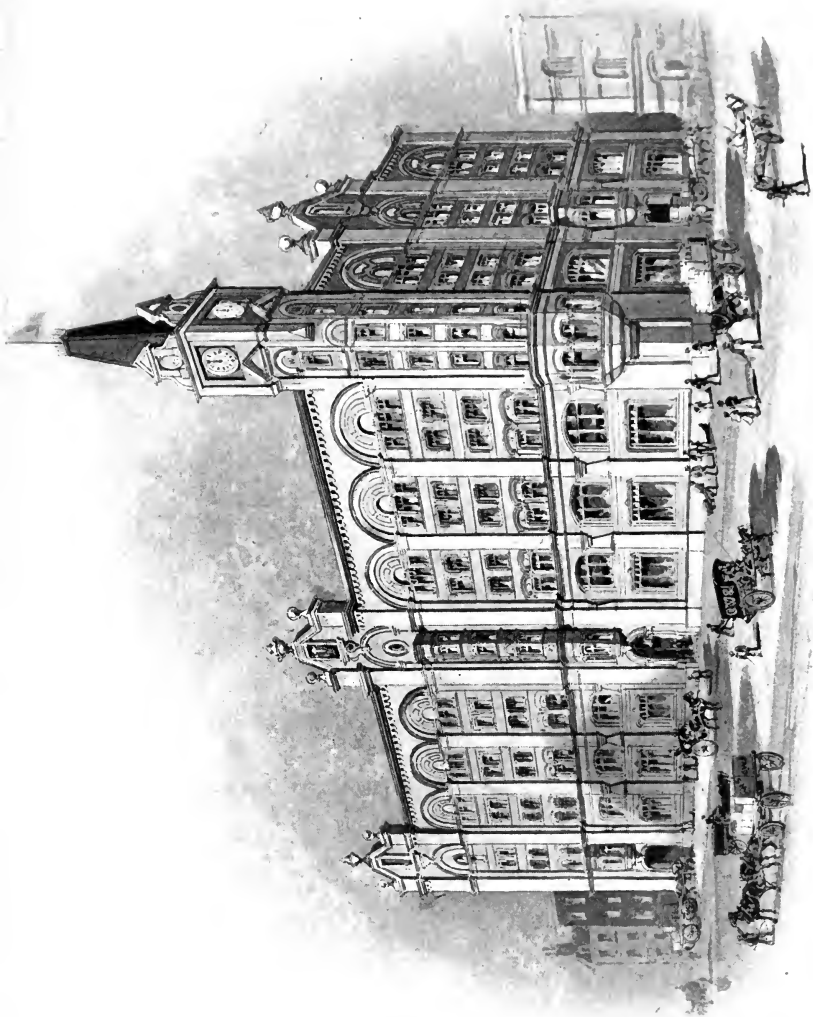




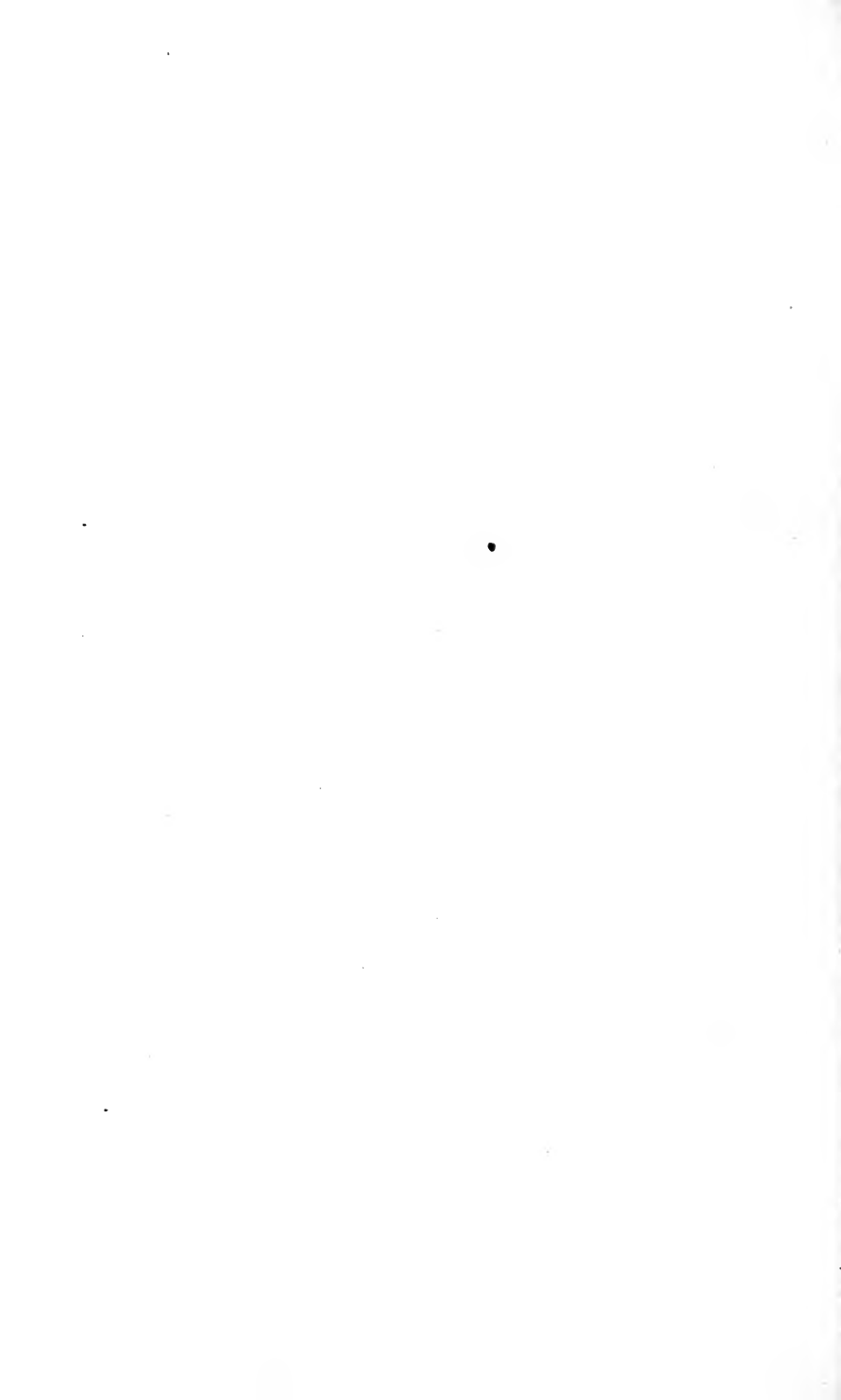
Birds-eye View of PELAW WORKS.

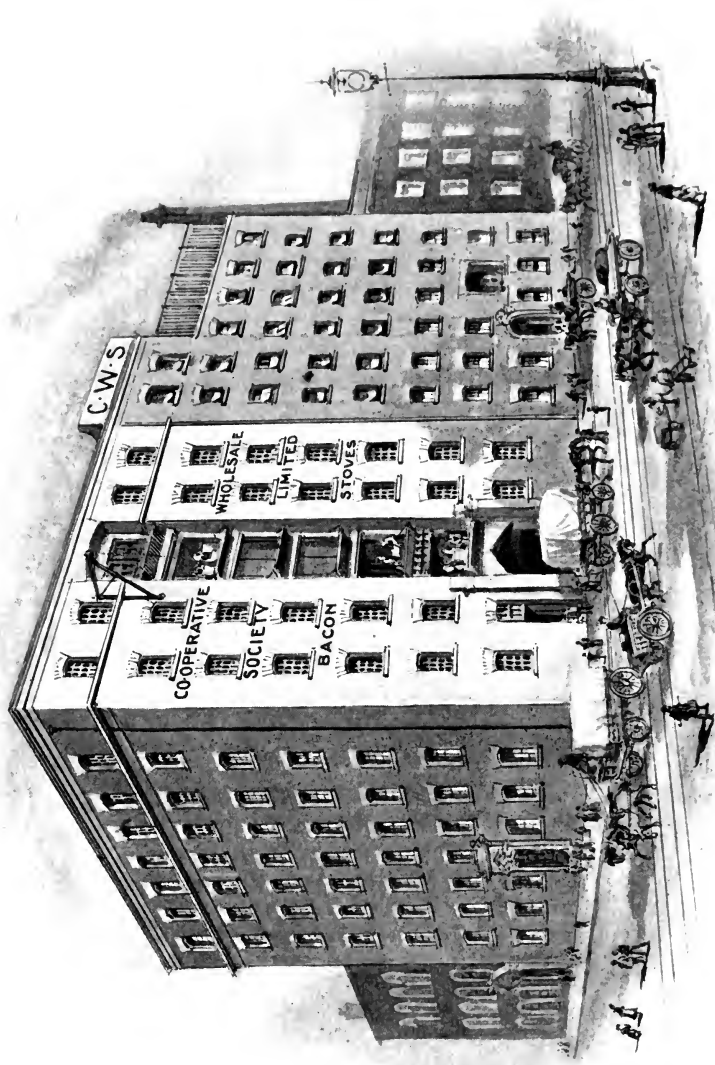
NEWCASTLE : PELAW.



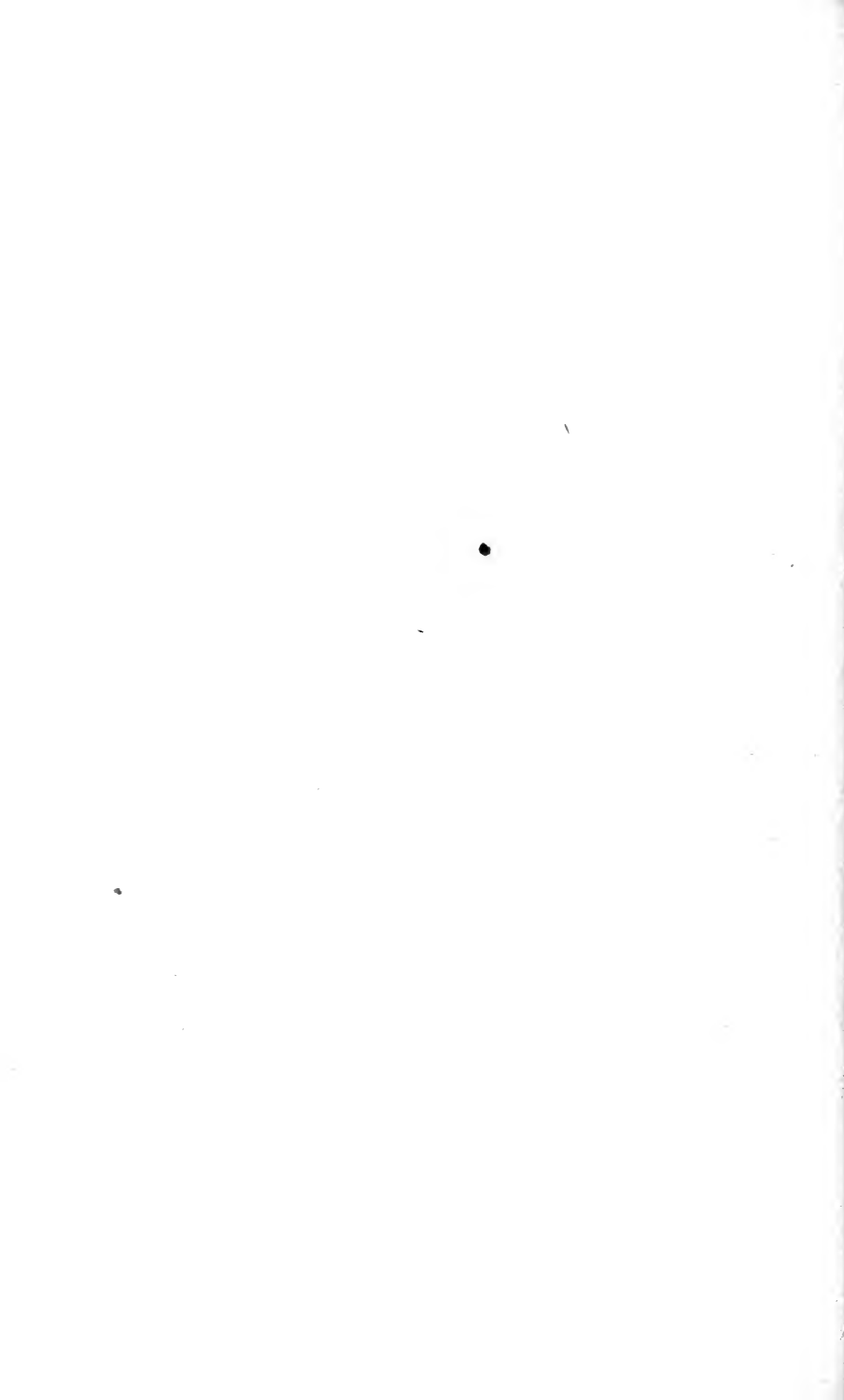


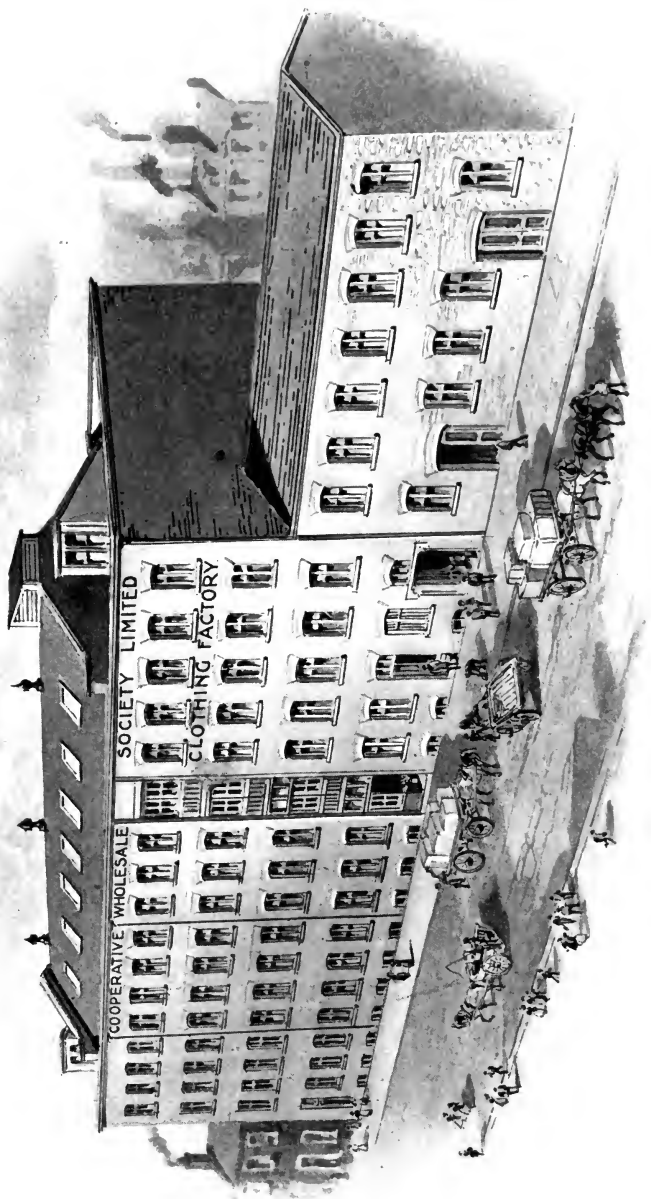
LONDON: LEMAN STREET.



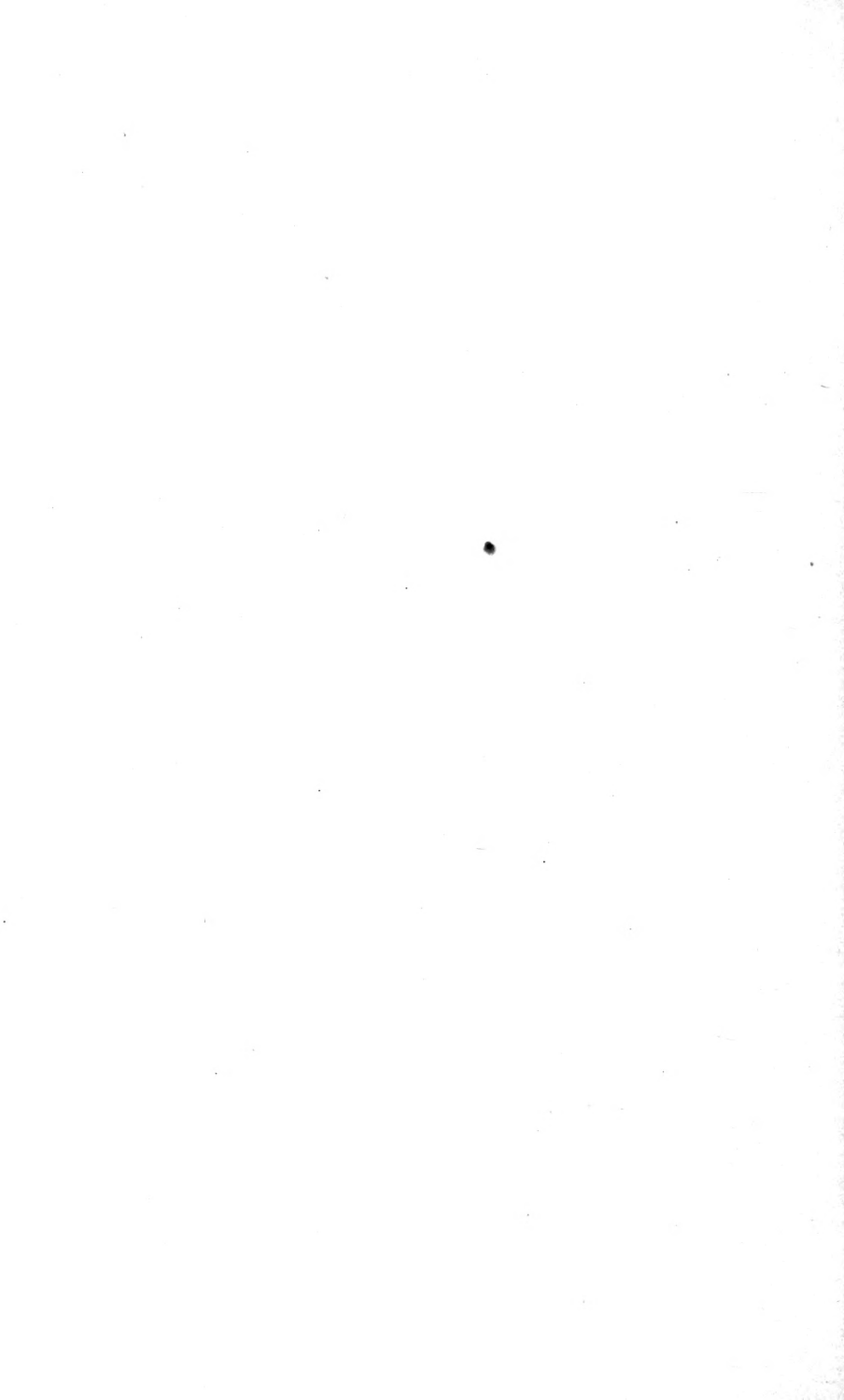


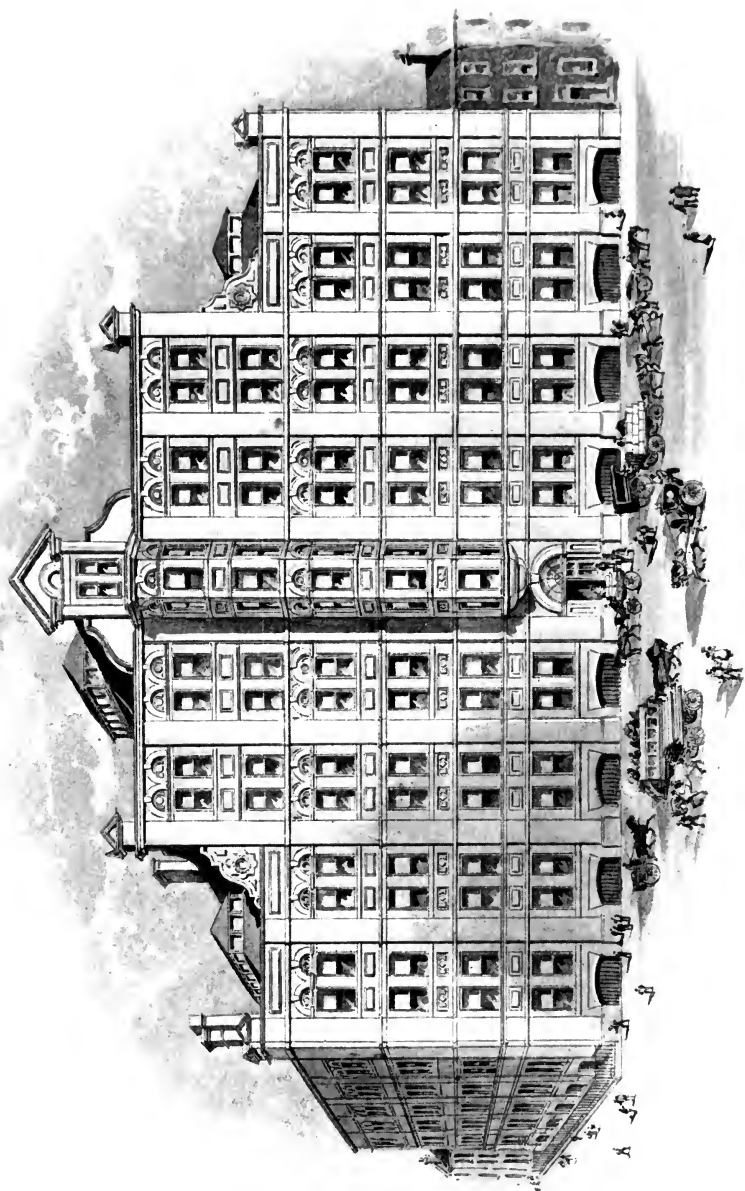
LONDON: BACON STOVES.





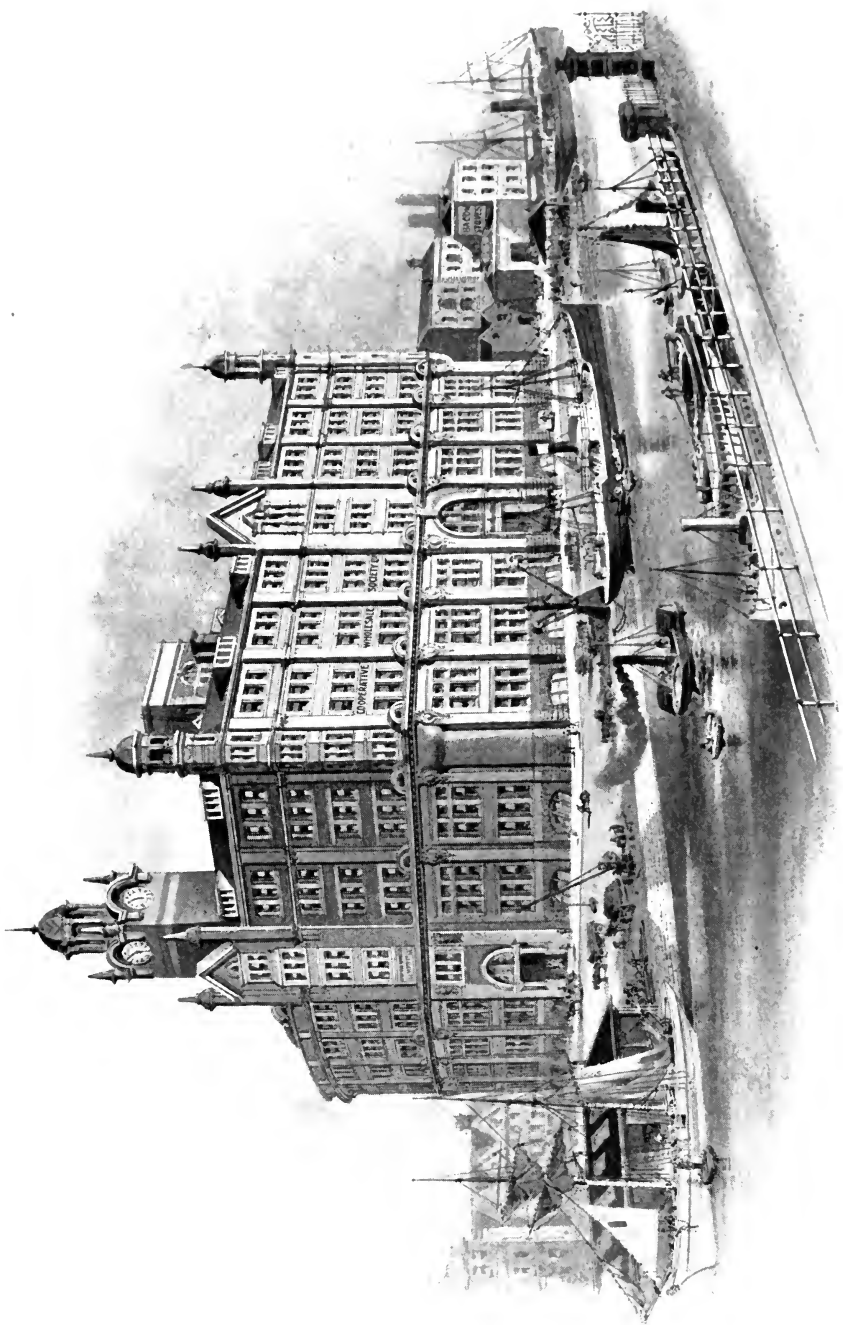
LONDON: GROVE STREET.



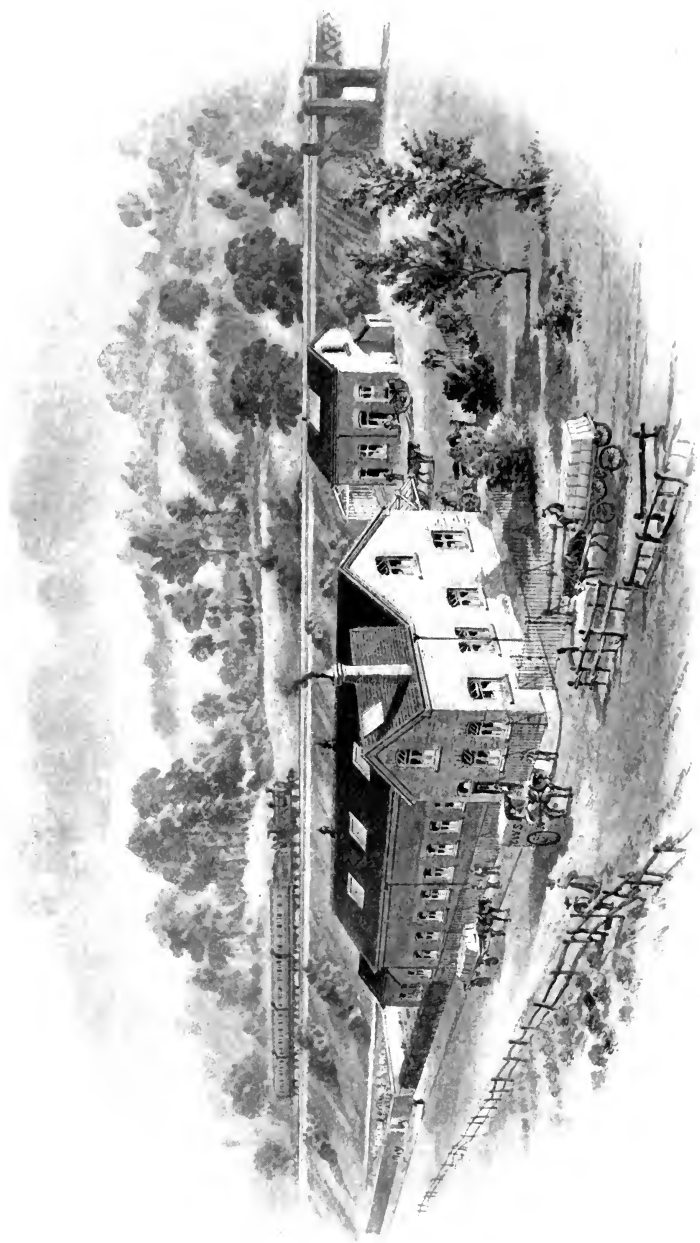


LONDON : TEA DEPARTMENT.



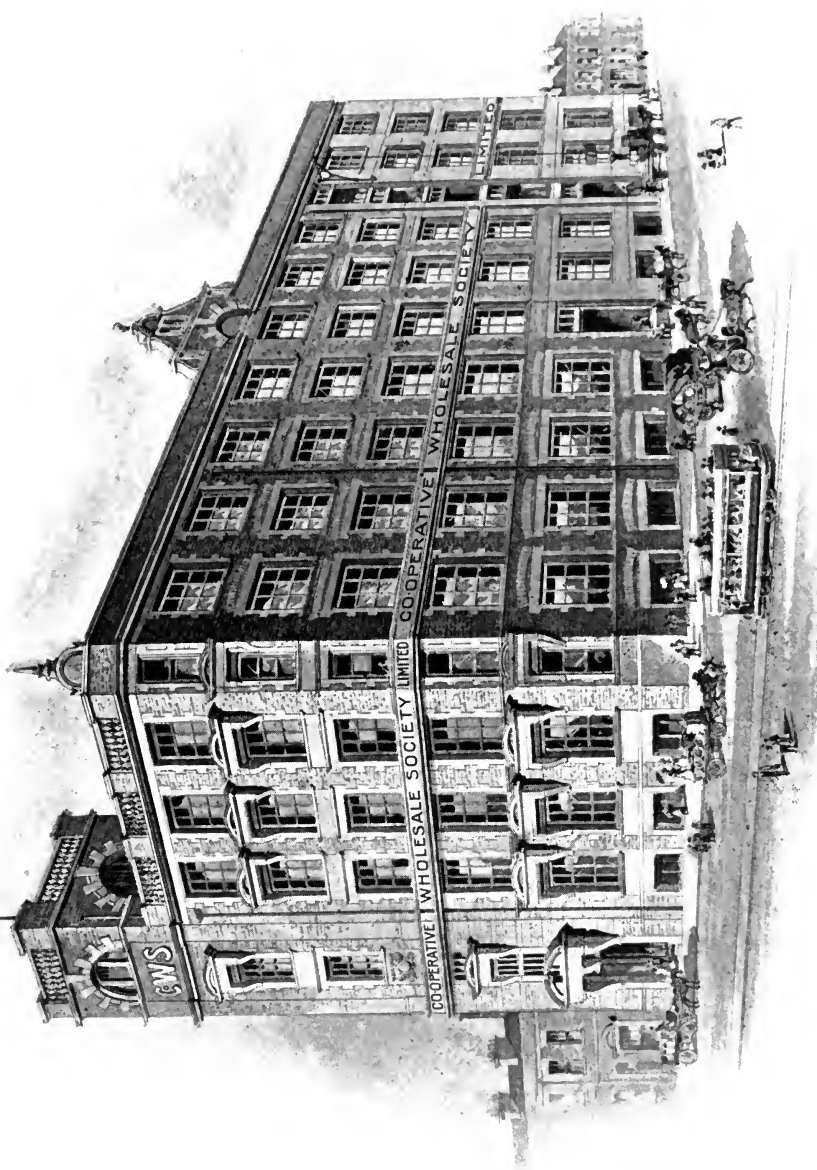


BRISTOL DEPOT.

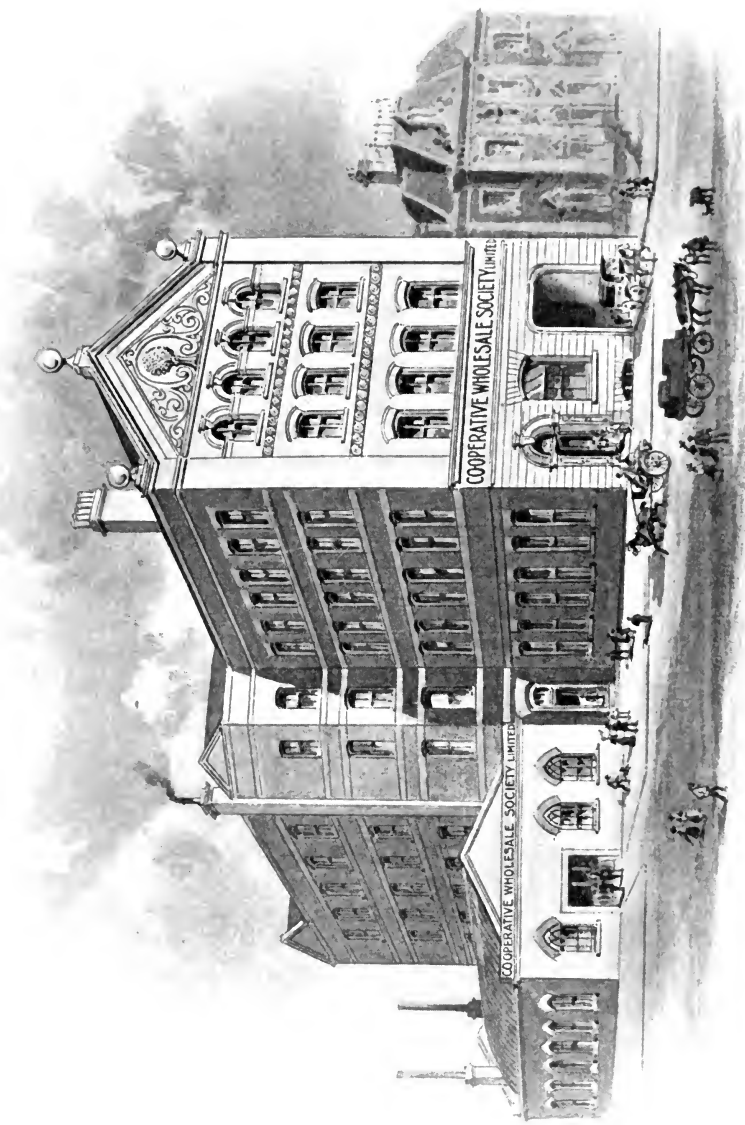


BRISLINGTON BUTTER FACTORY.





CARDIFF DEPOT.

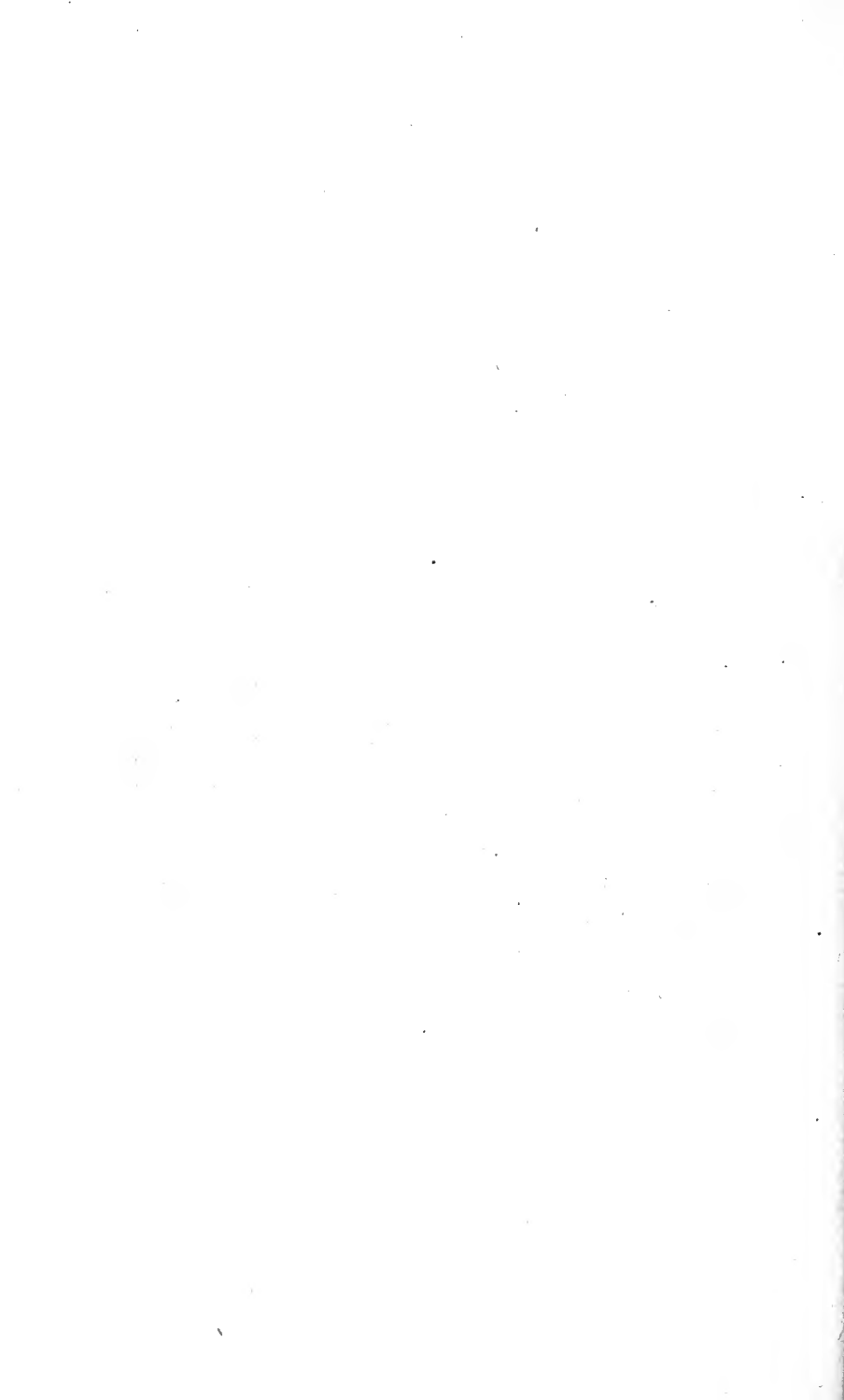


NORTHAMPTON SALEROOM.



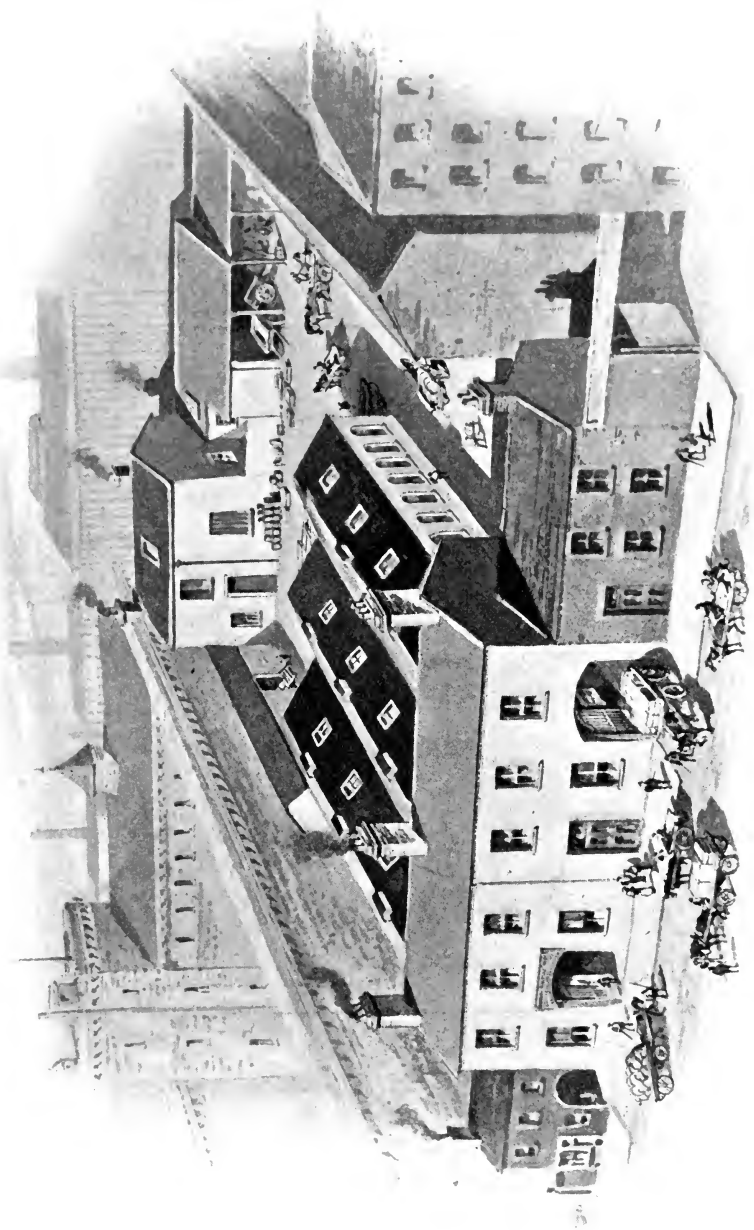


NOTTINGHAM SALEROOM.

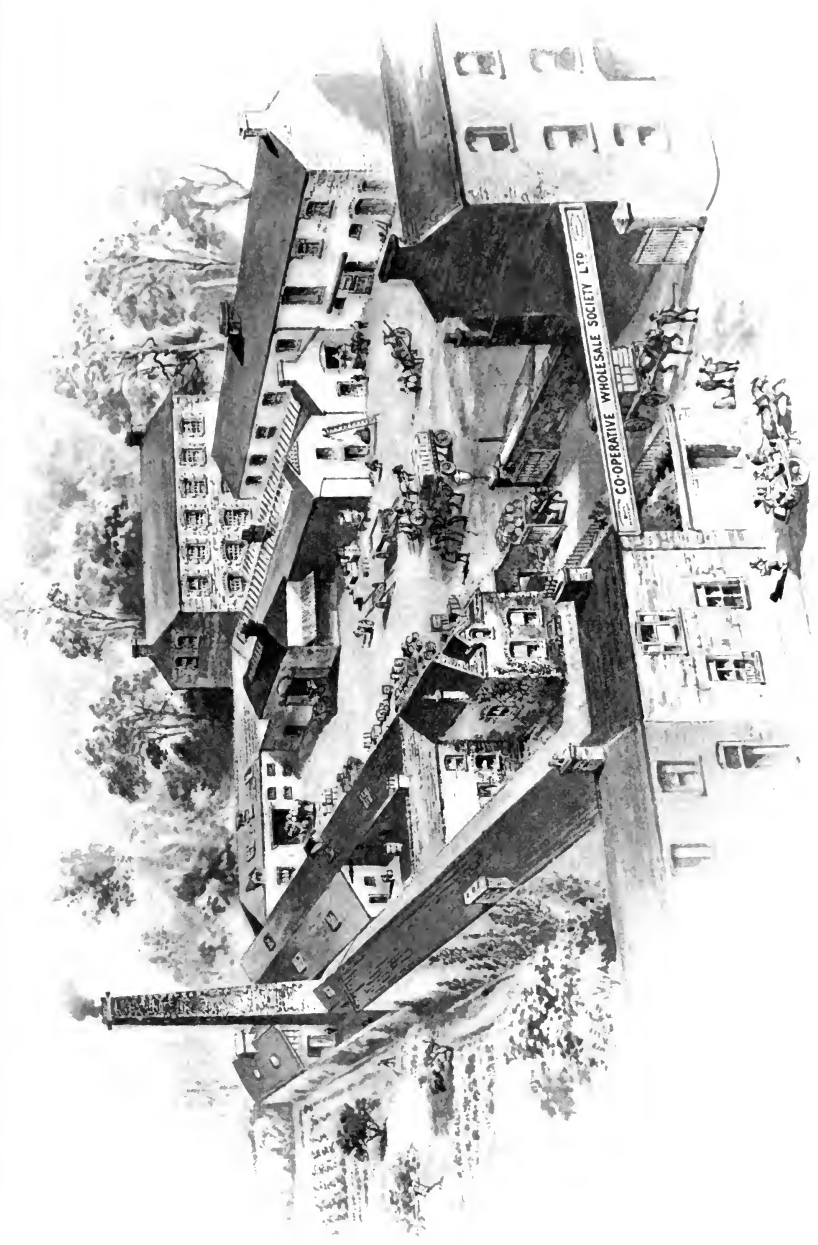




BIRMINGHAM SALEROOM.

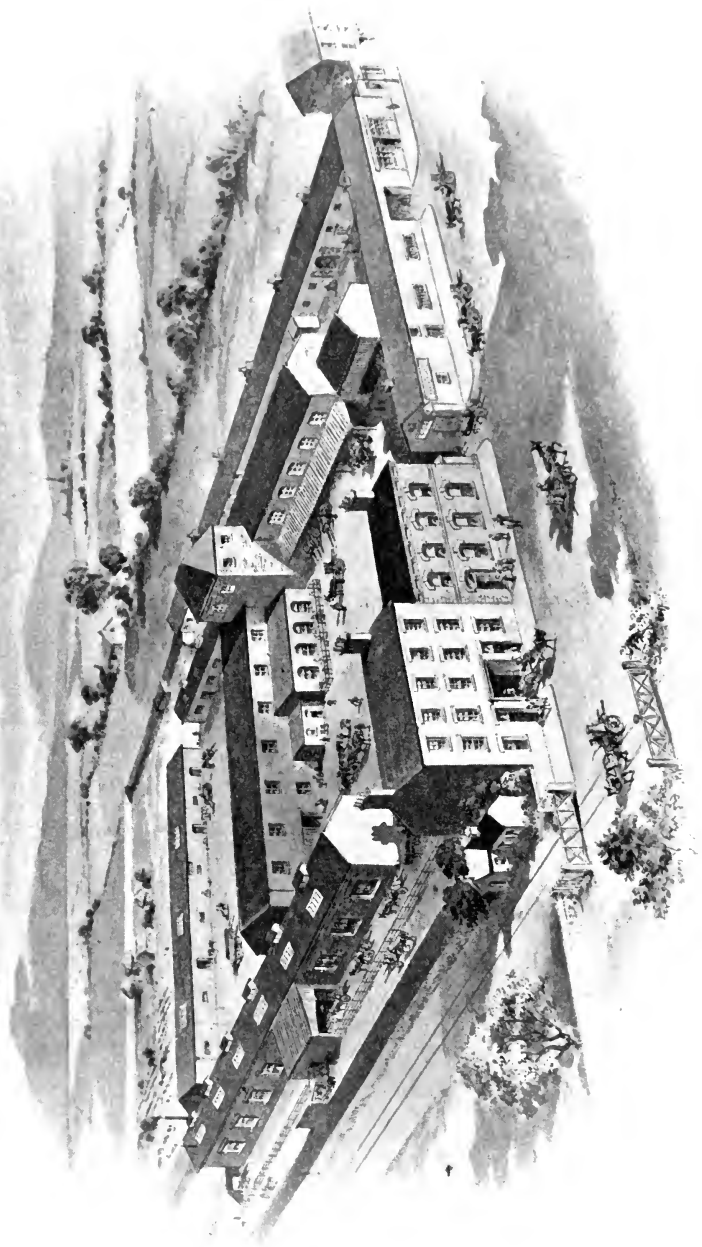


LIMERICK DEPOT.

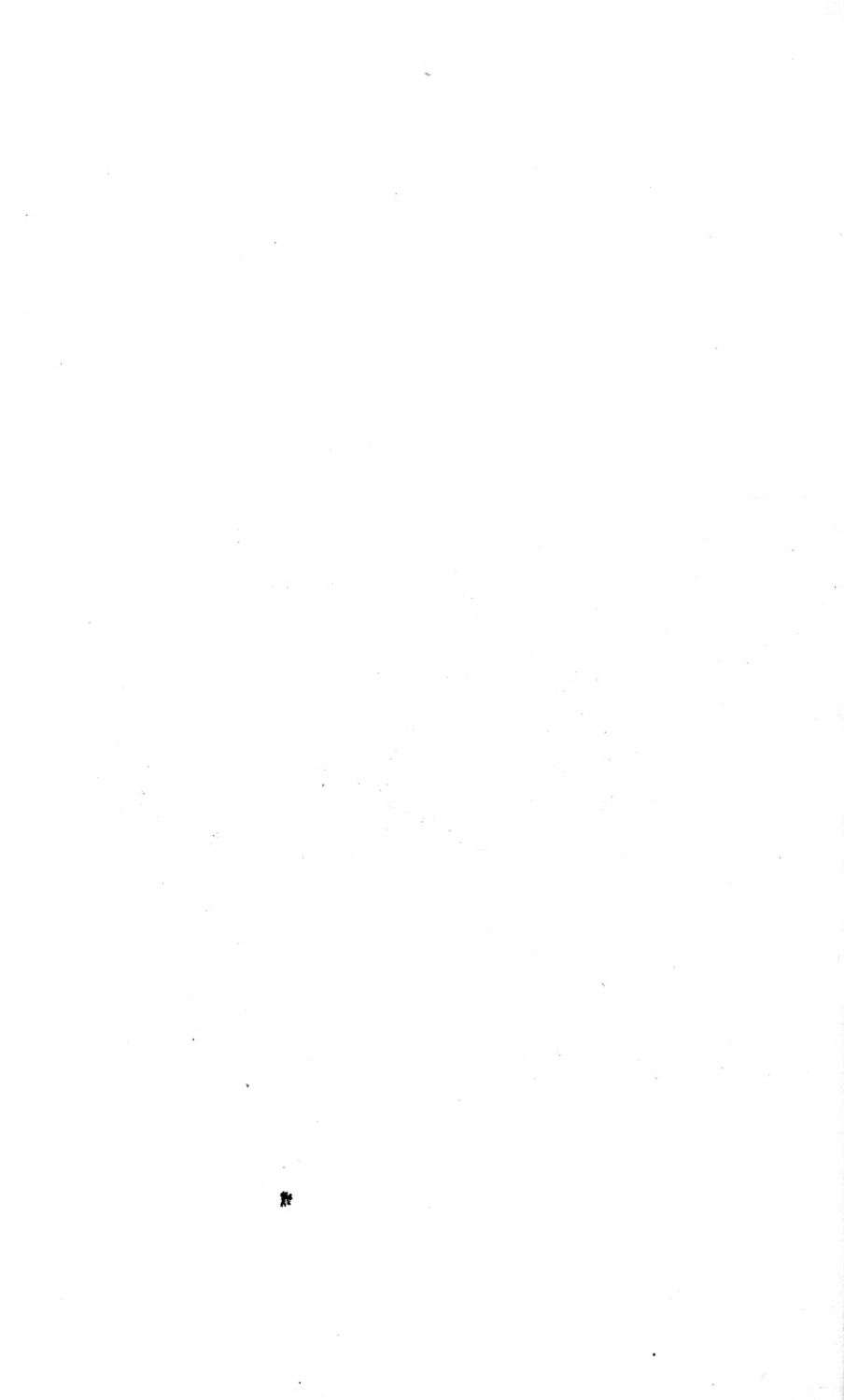


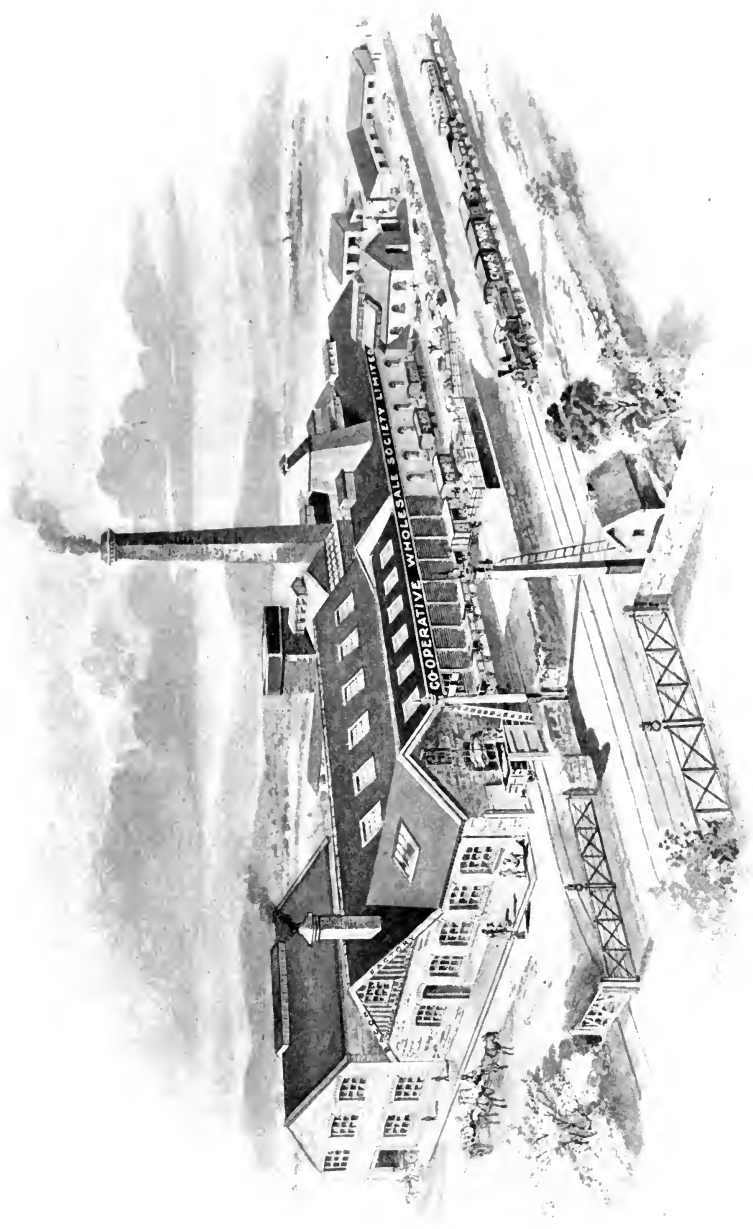
ARMAGH DEPOT.





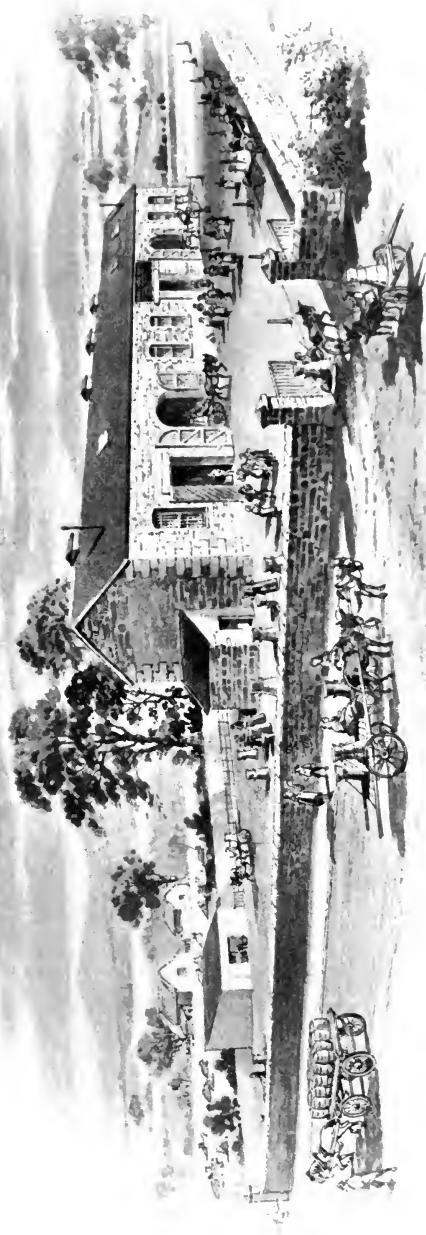
TOWN, EGG AND BUTTER DEPOT



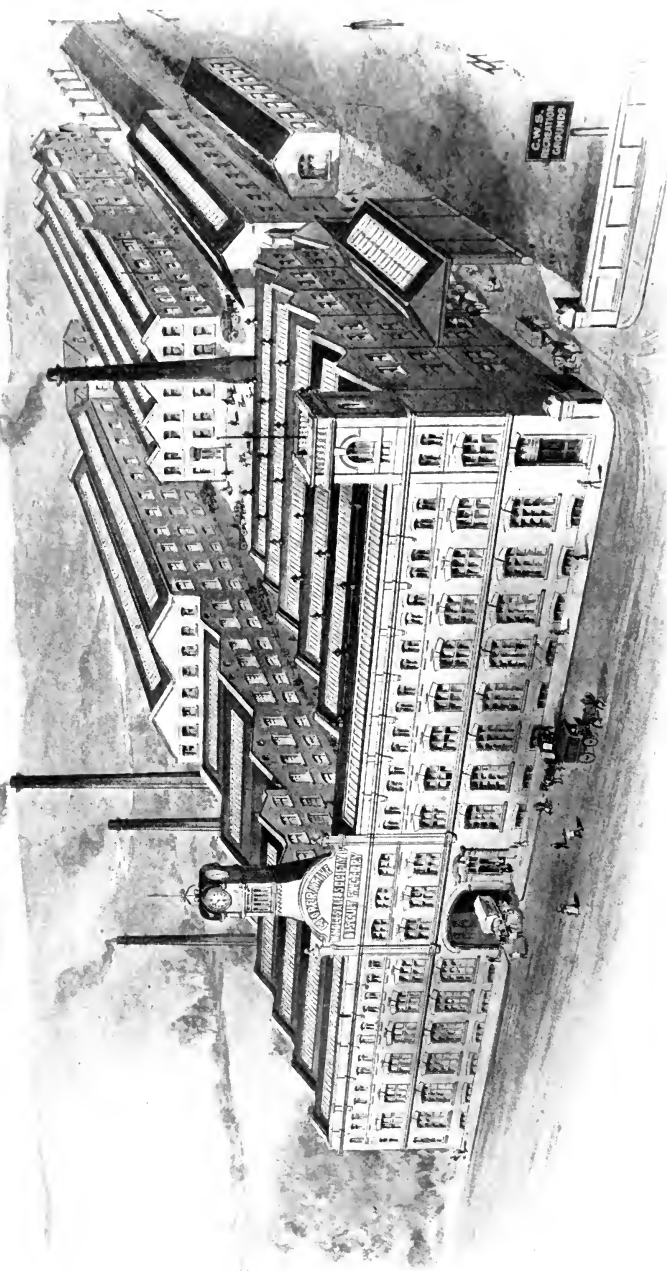


TRALEE BACON FACTORY.

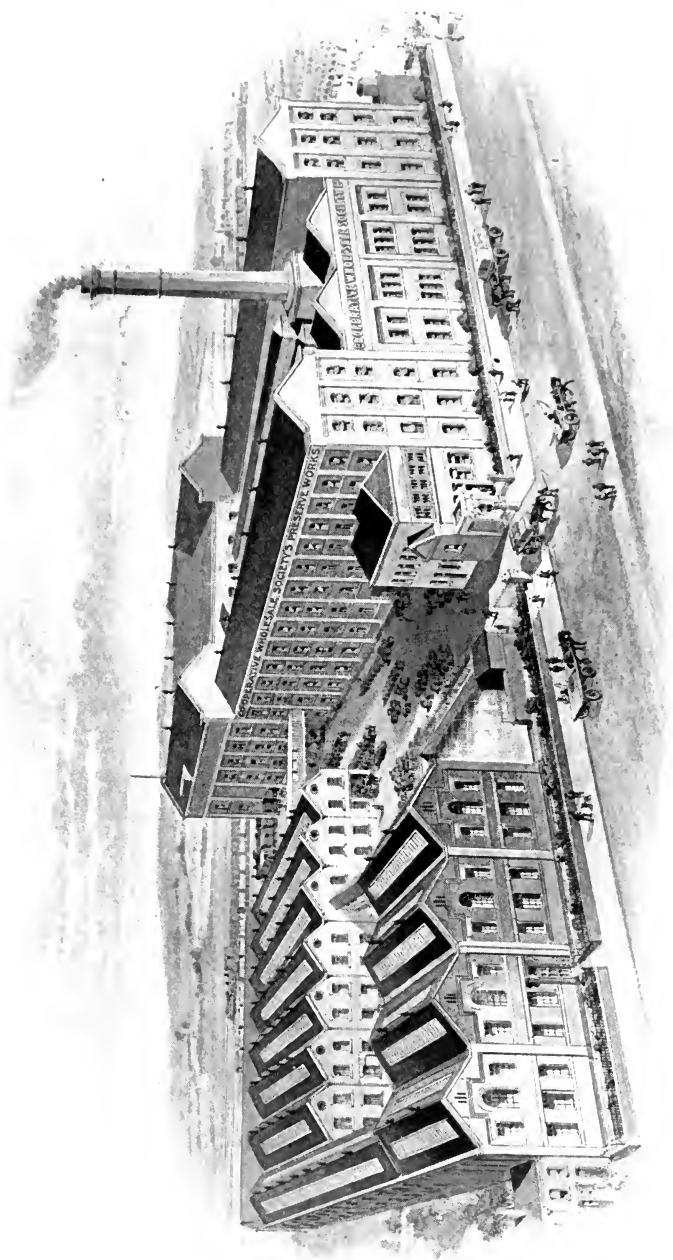




TYPICAL IRISH CREAMERY (BUNBURY).



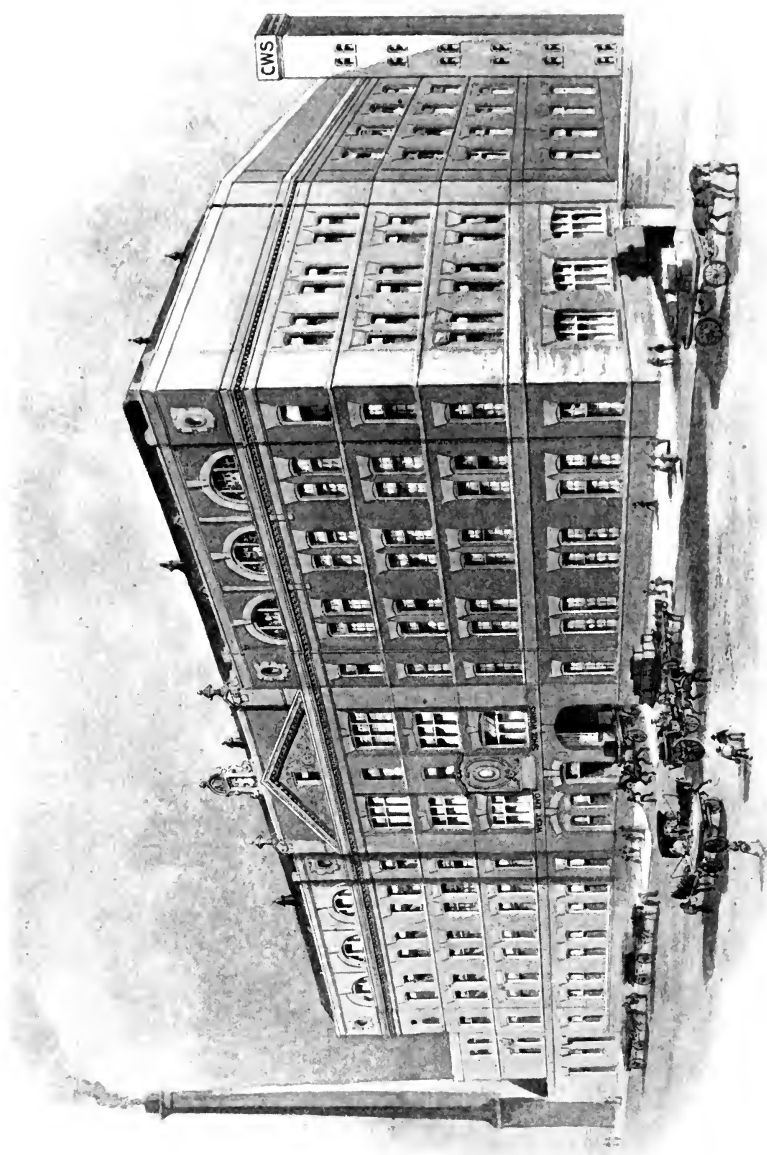
CRUMPSALL BISCUIT, SWEET, &c., WORKS.



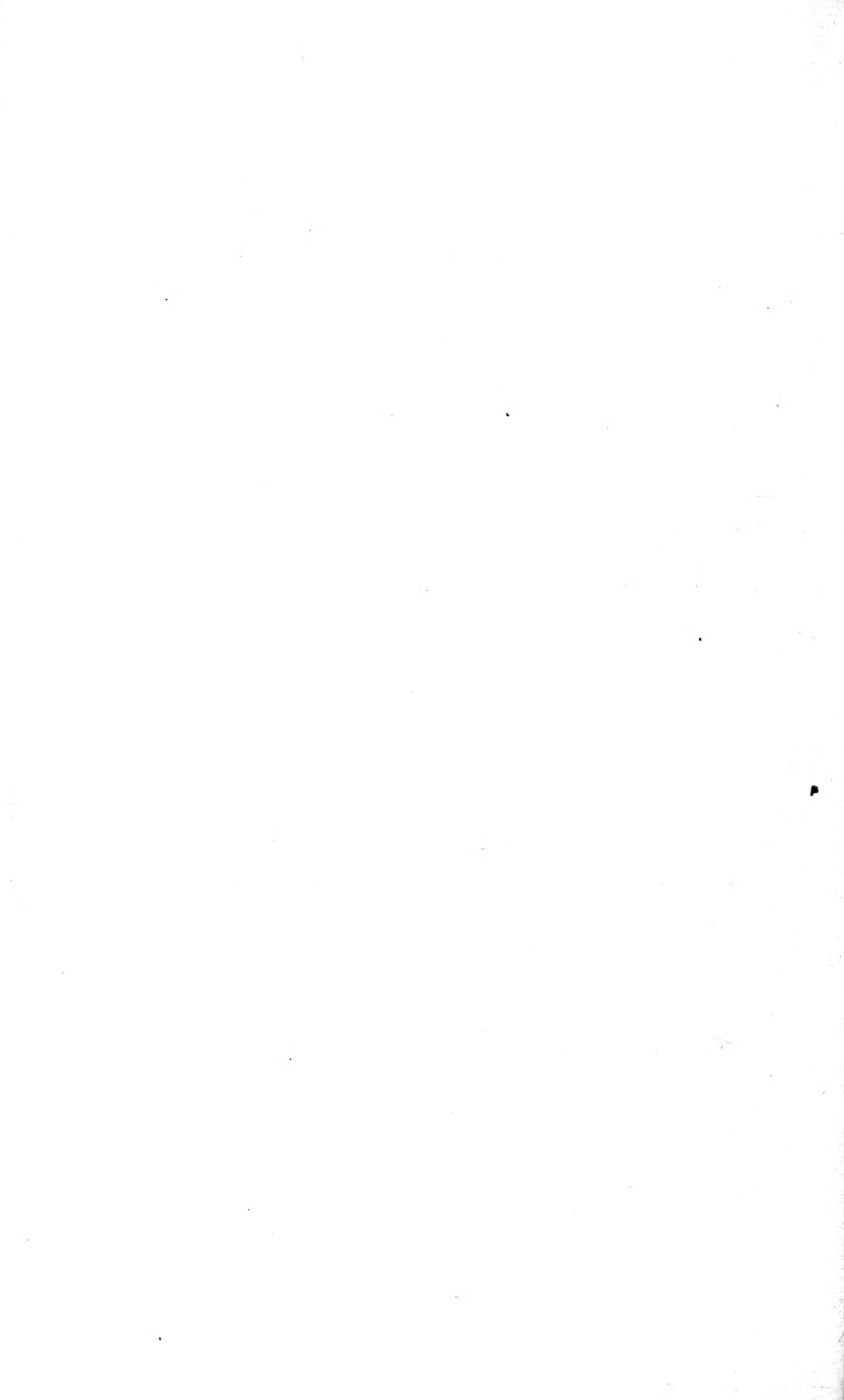
MIDDLETON JAM, PICKLE, AND PEEL WORKS.

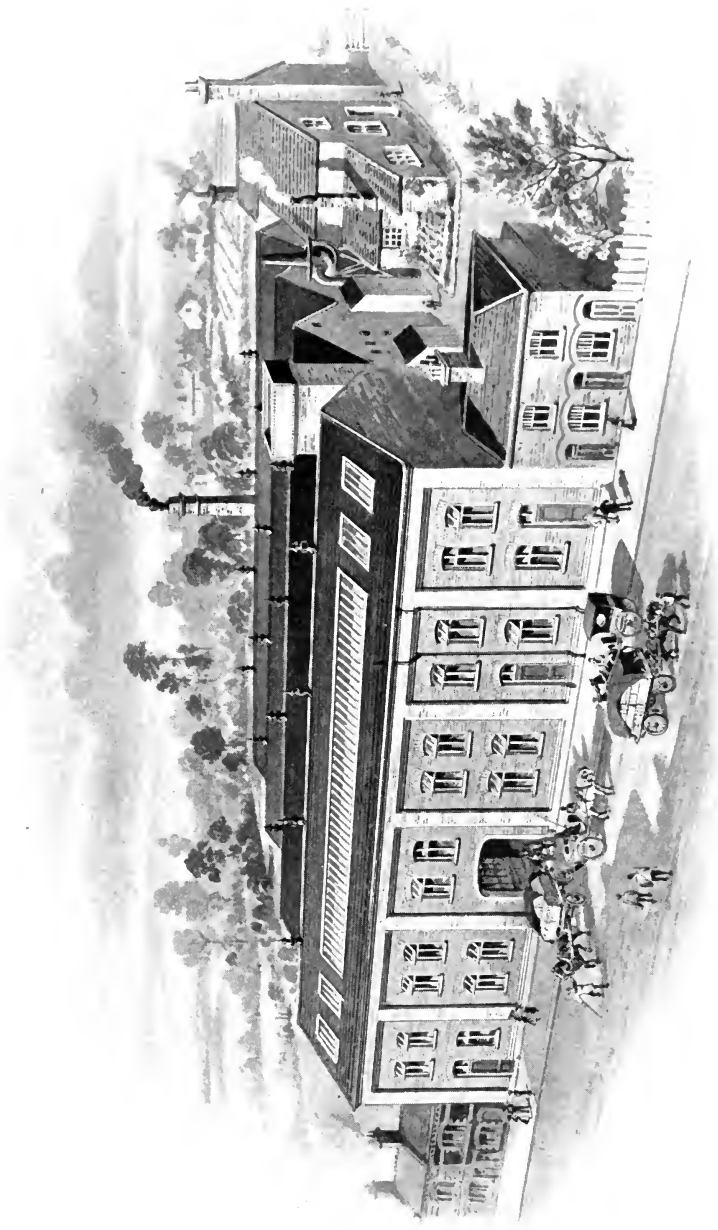


LEICESTER WHEATSHEAF BOOT AND SHOE WORKS.

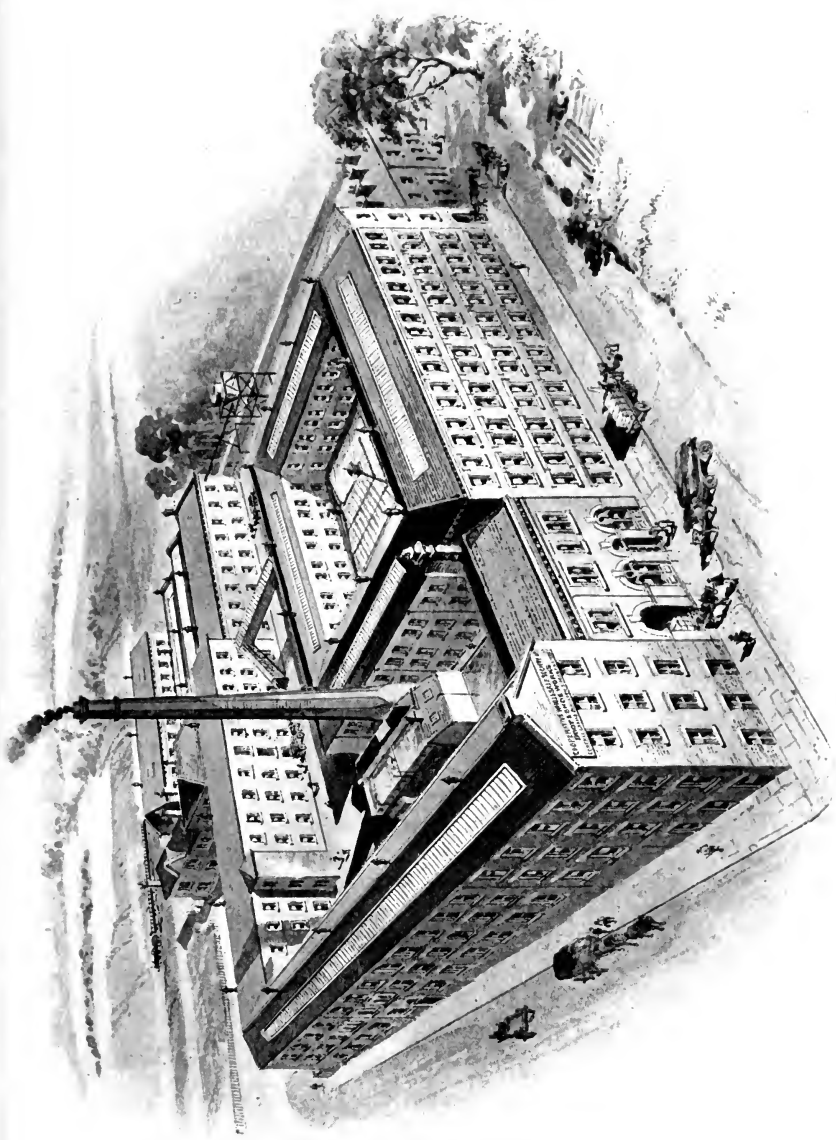


LEICESTER. DUNS LANE. BOOT AND SHOE WORKS.

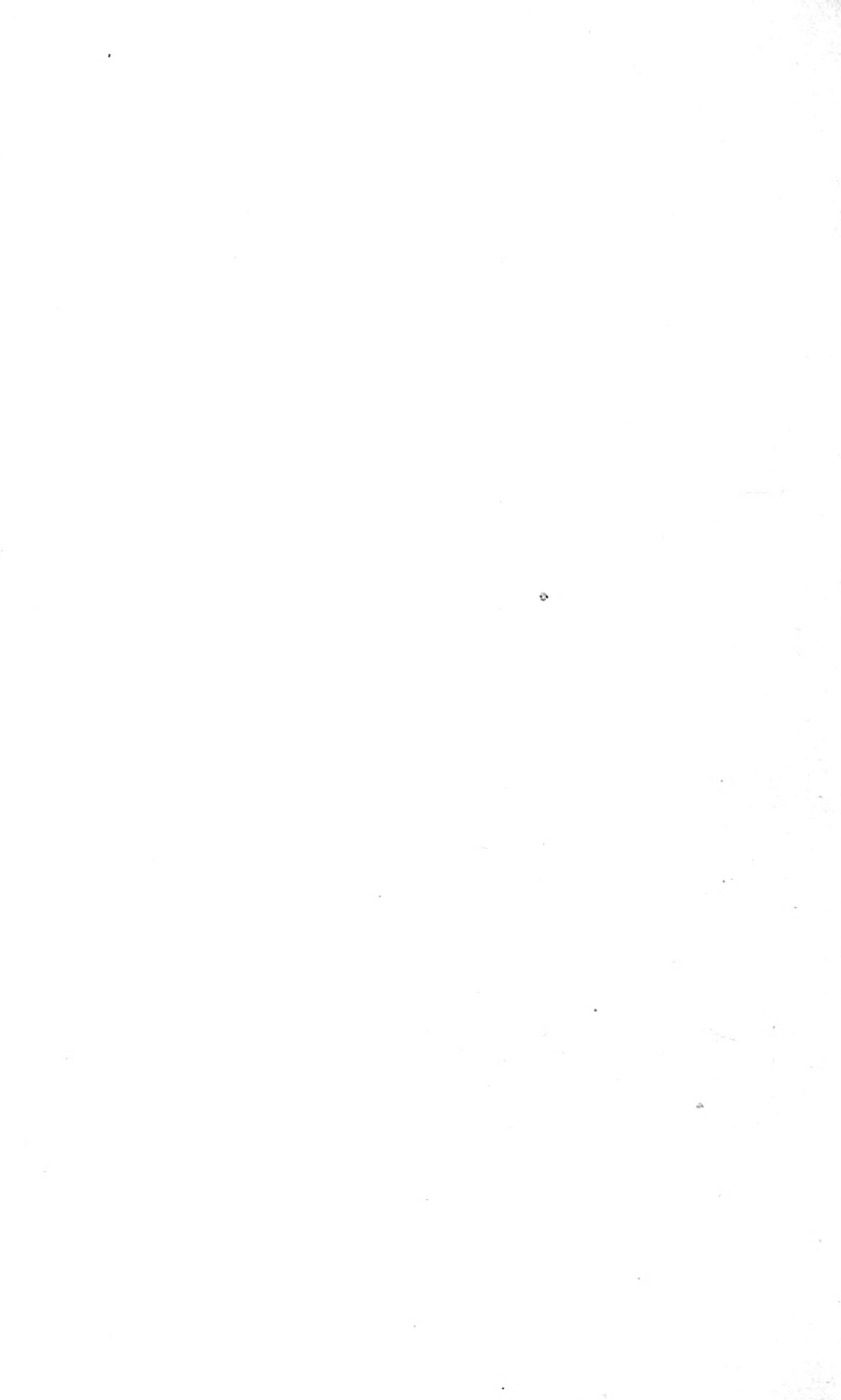


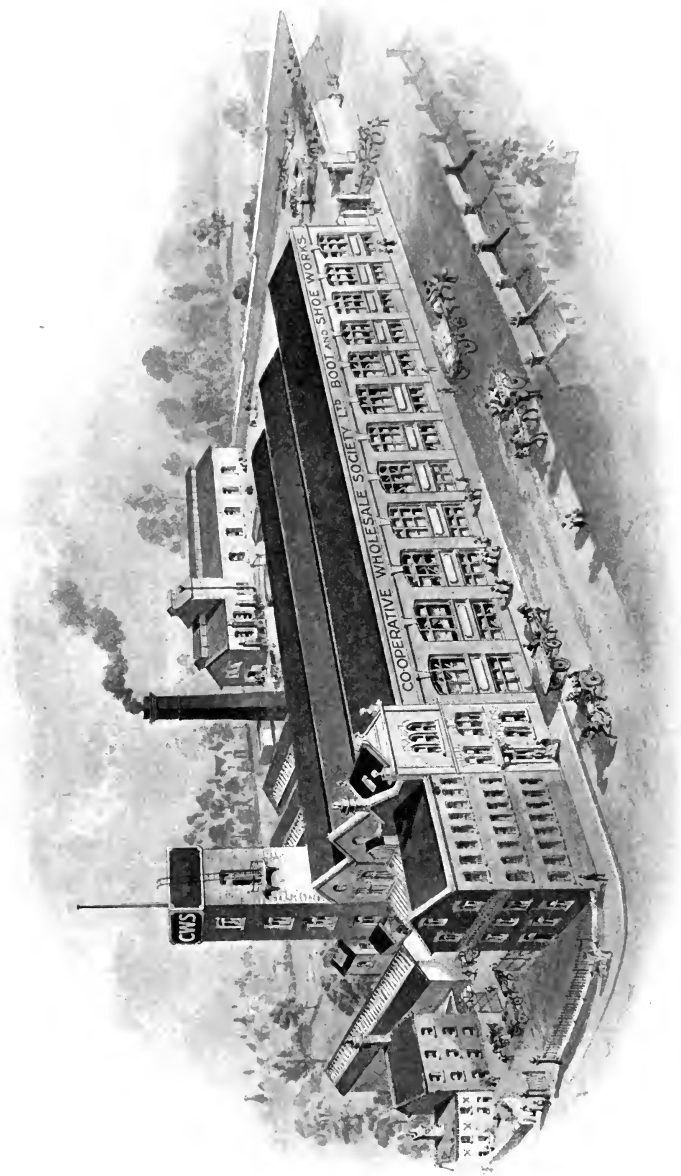


ENDERBY BOOT AND SHOE WORKS.

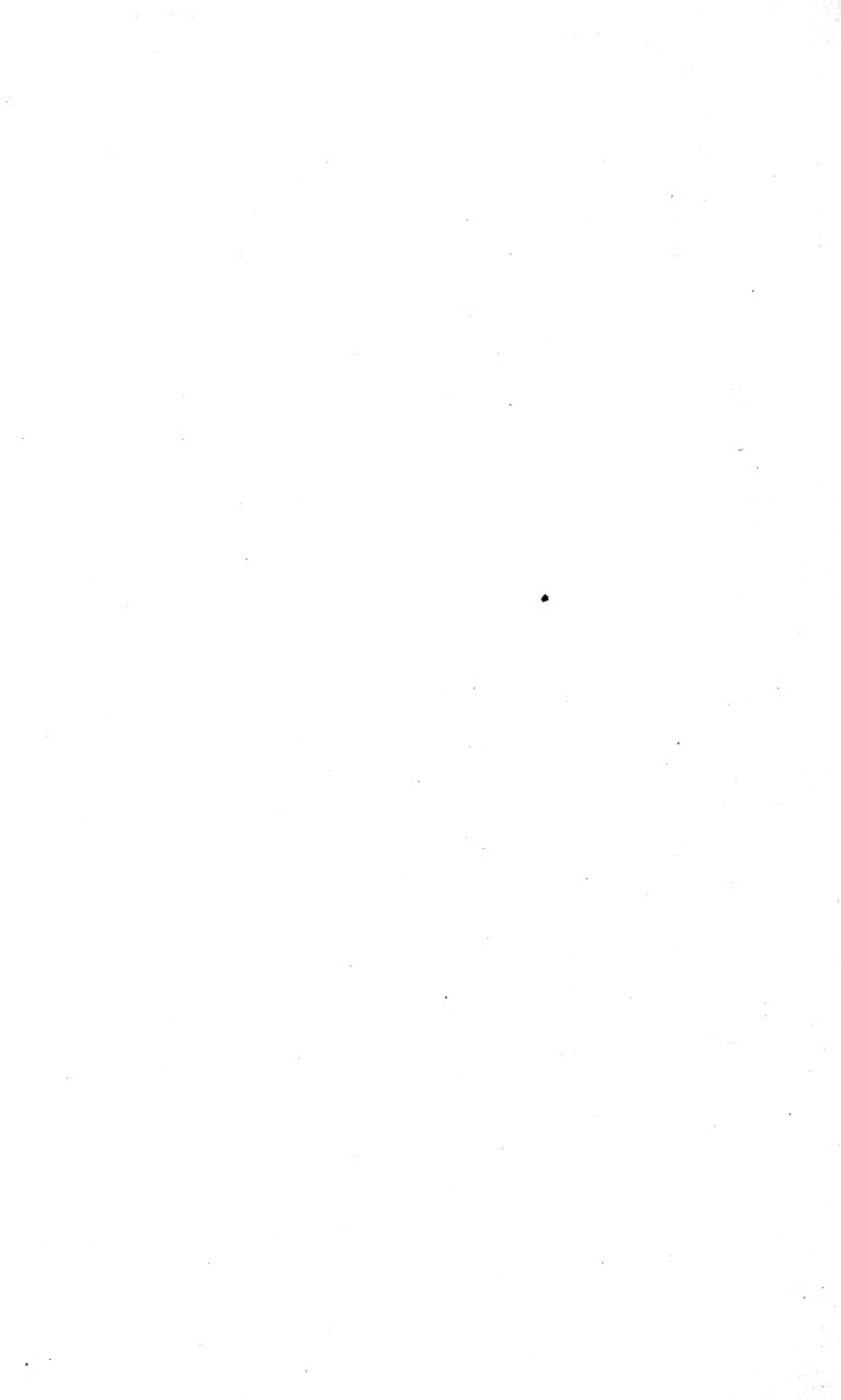


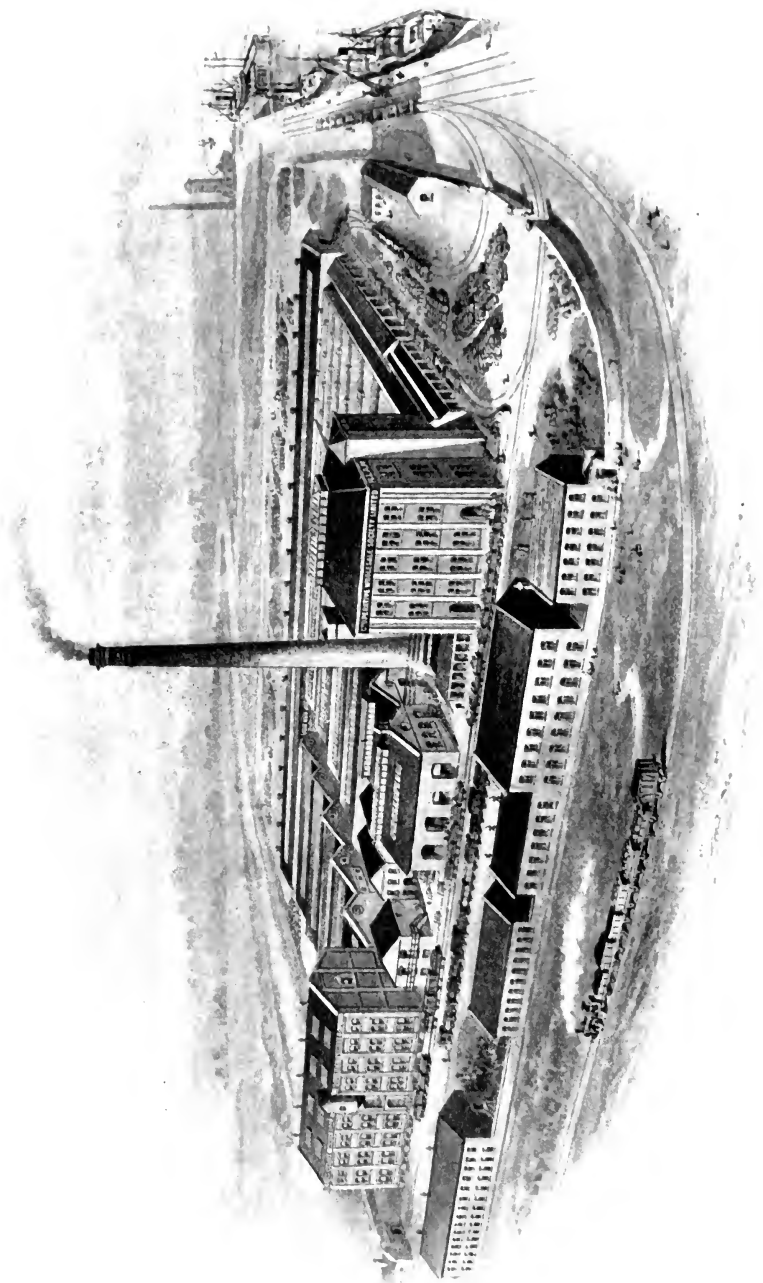
HECKMONDWIKE BOOT, SHOE, AND CURRYING WORKS.



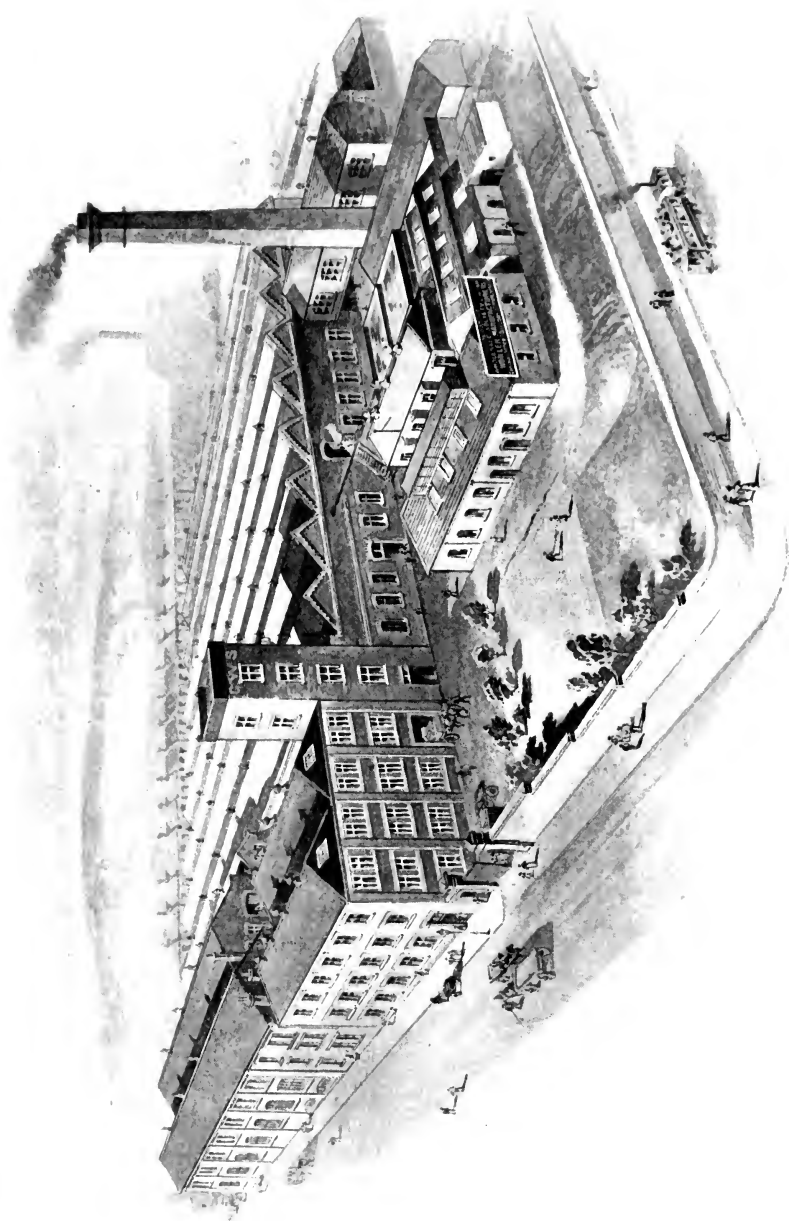


RUSHDEN BOOT AND SHOE WORKS.

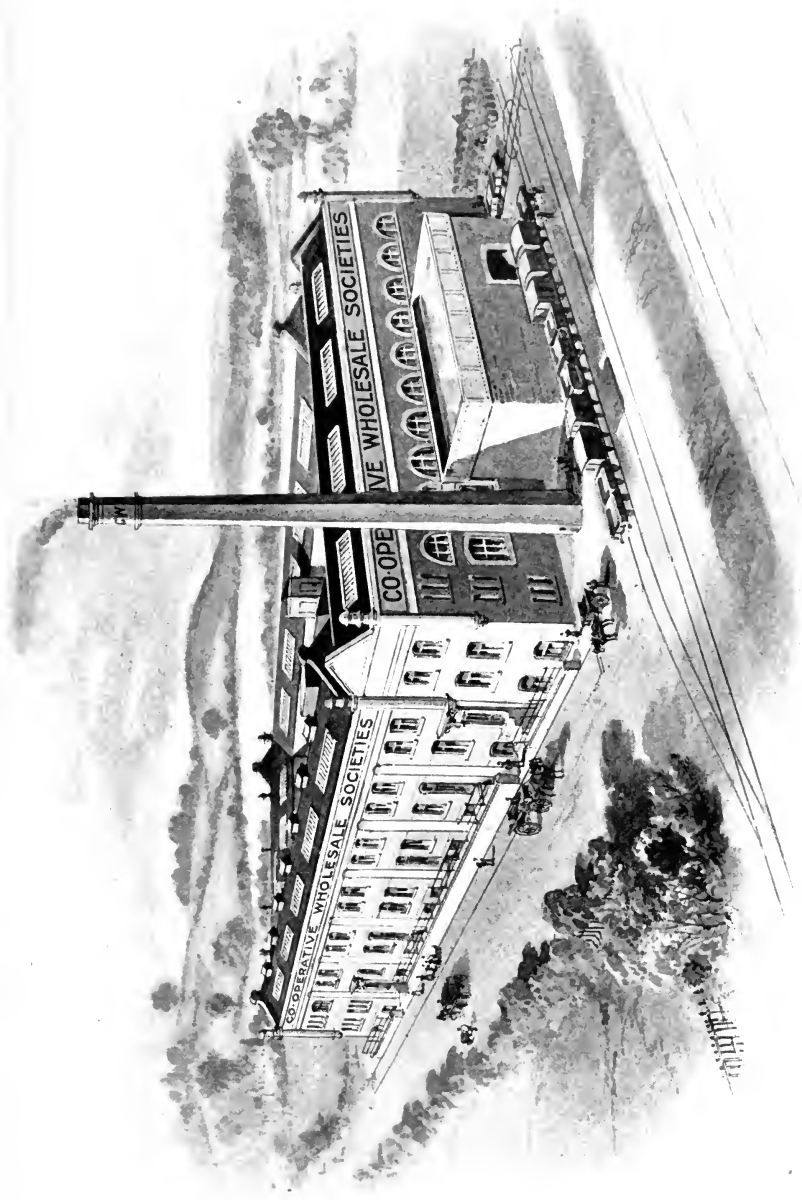




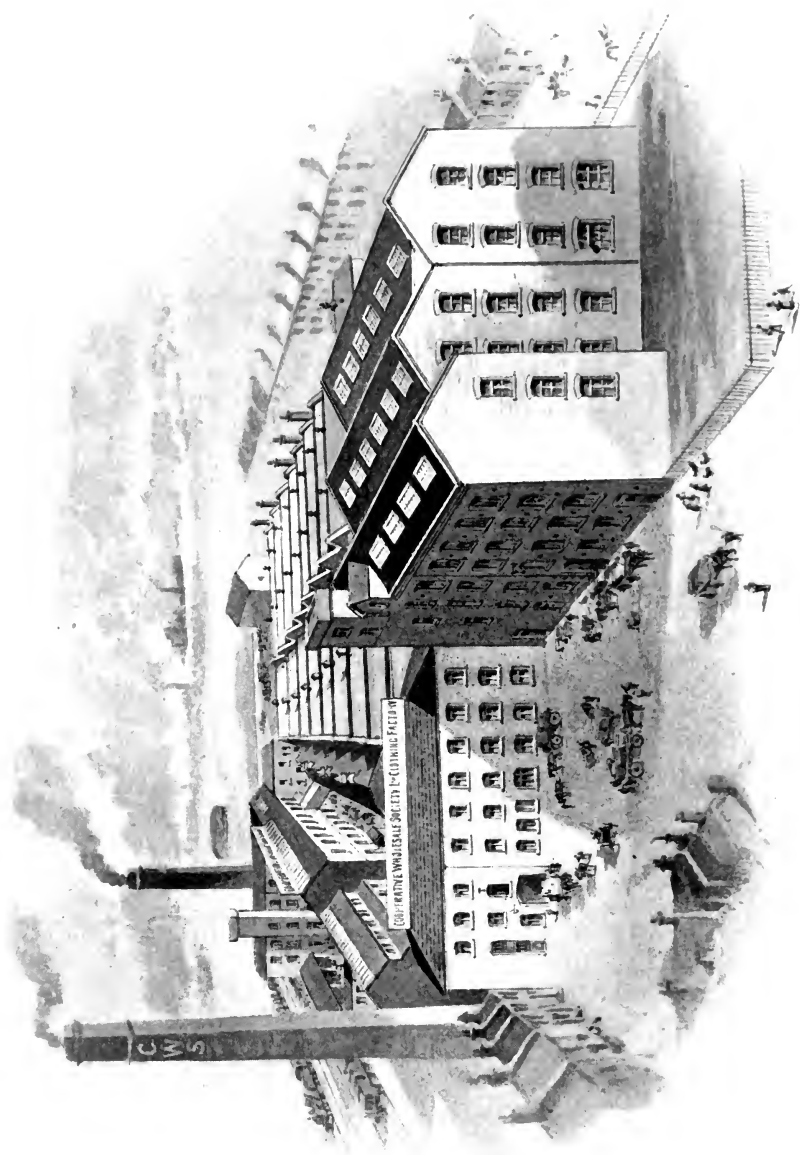
IRLAM SOAP, CANDLE, AND GLYCERINE WORKS.



BATLEY WOOLLEN CLOTH FACTORY.



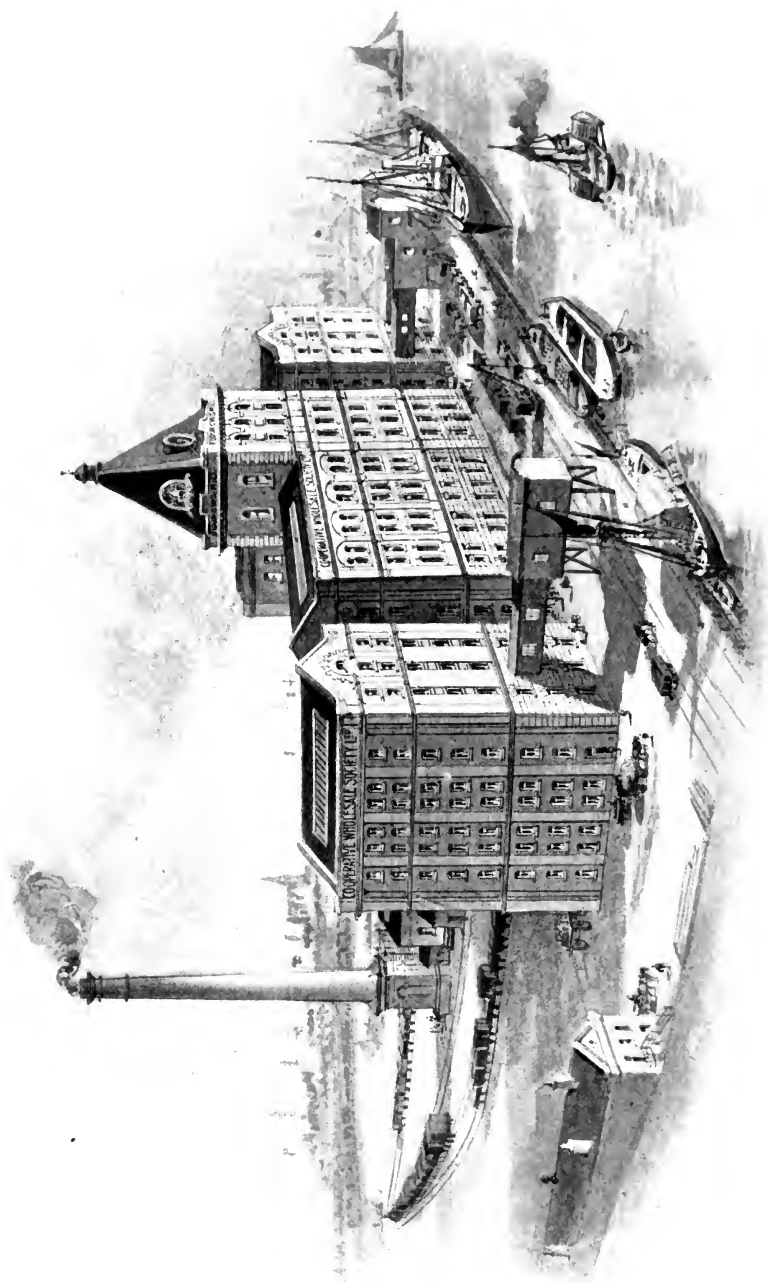
LUTON COCOA AND CHOCOLATE WORKS.



LEEDS CLOTHING AND BRUSH FACTORY.

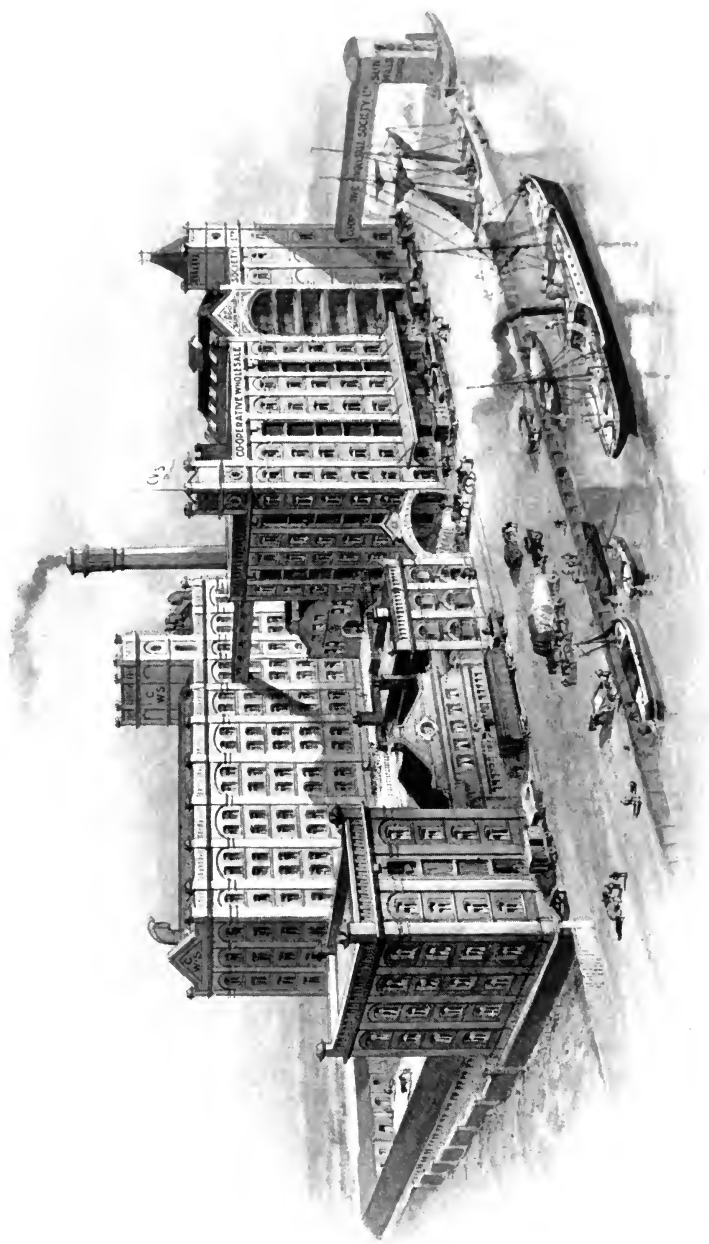


DUNSTON-ON-TYNE FLOUR MILL.

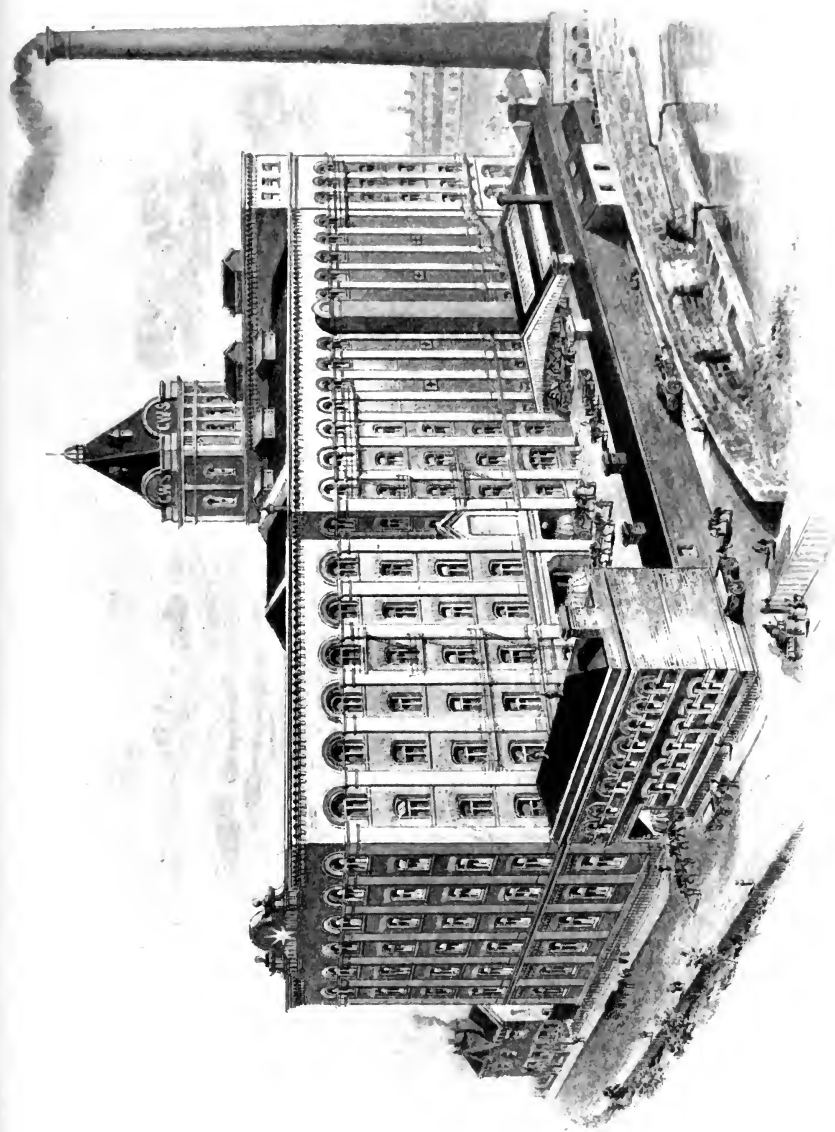


SILVERTOWN (LONDON) FLOUR MILL.

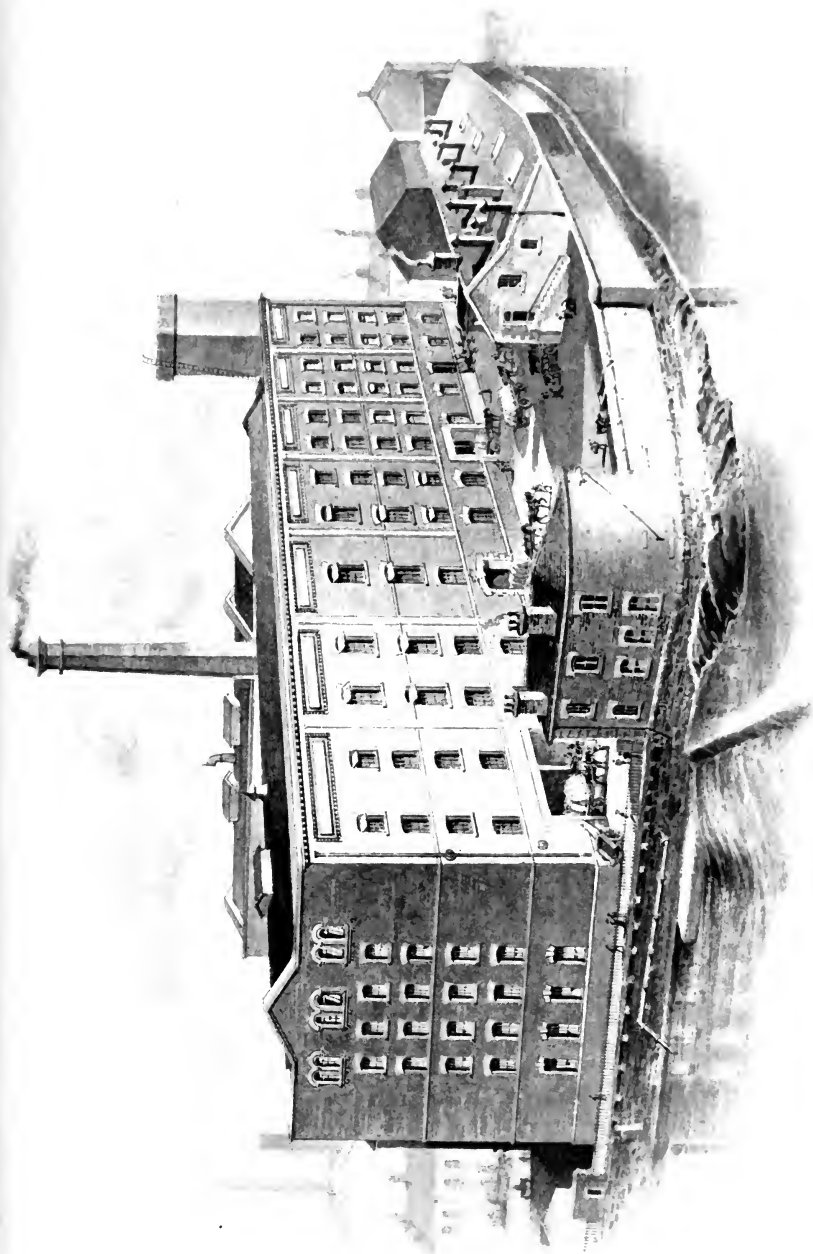




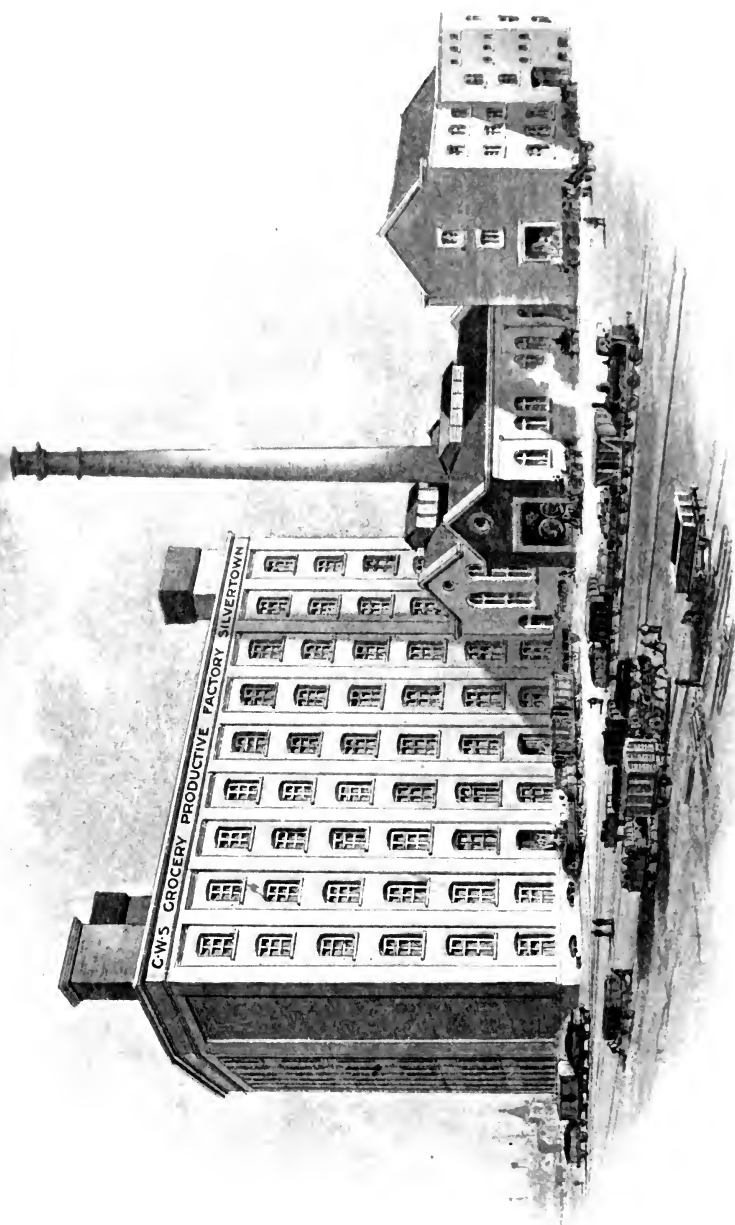
SUN FLOUR AND PROVENDER MILLS, TRAFFORD WHARF.



STAR FLOUR MILL, OLDHAM.



ROCHDALE FLOUR MILL.

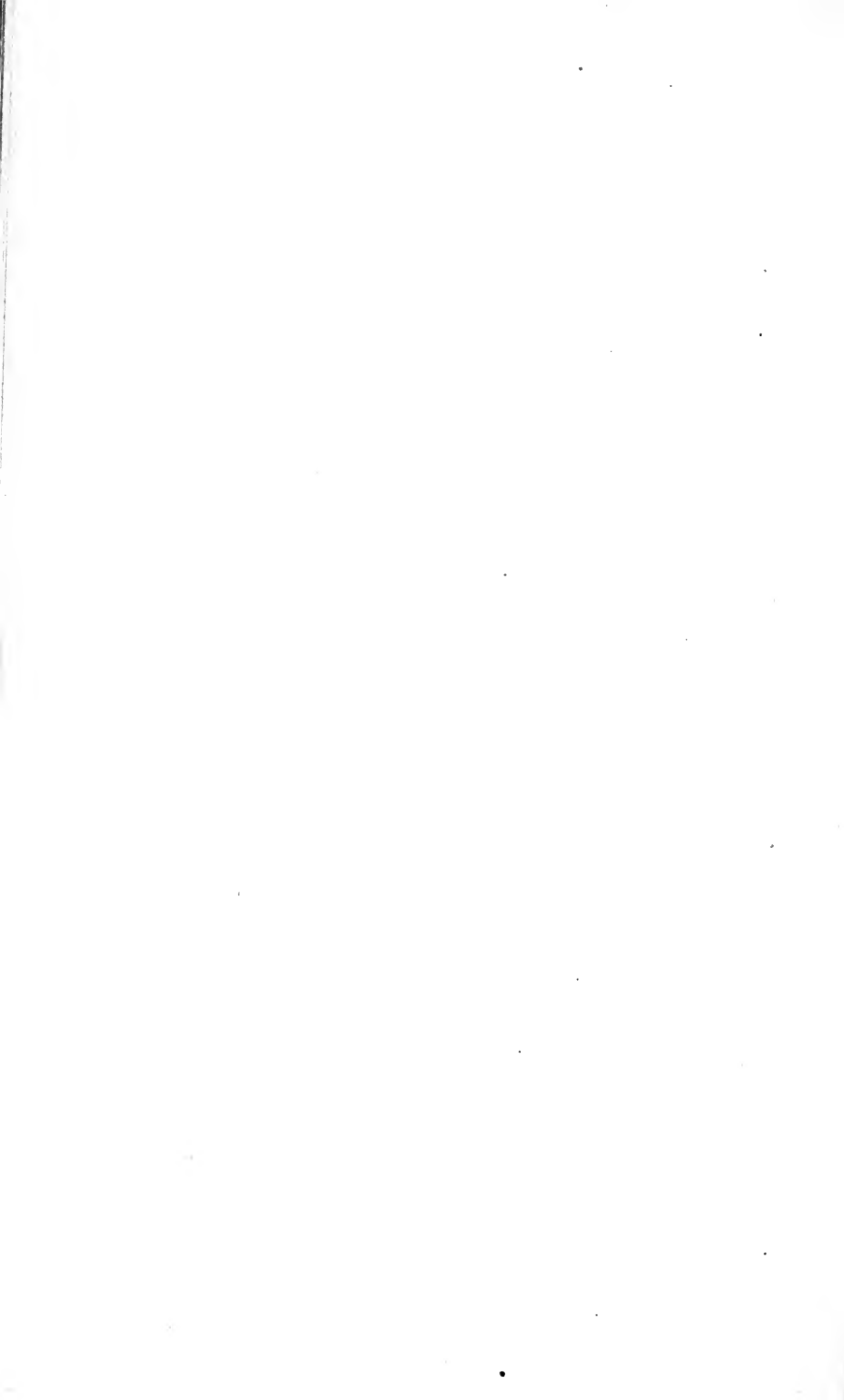


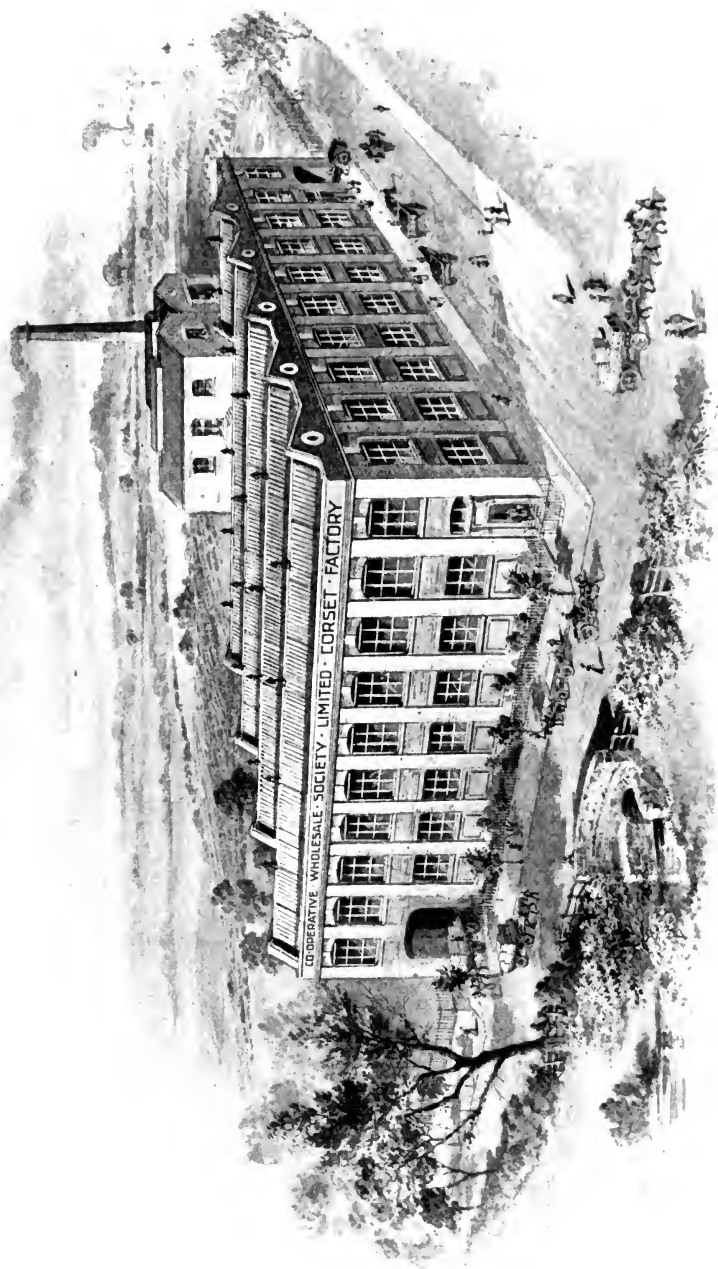
SILVERTOWN (LONDON) GROCERY PRODUCTIVE FACTORY.



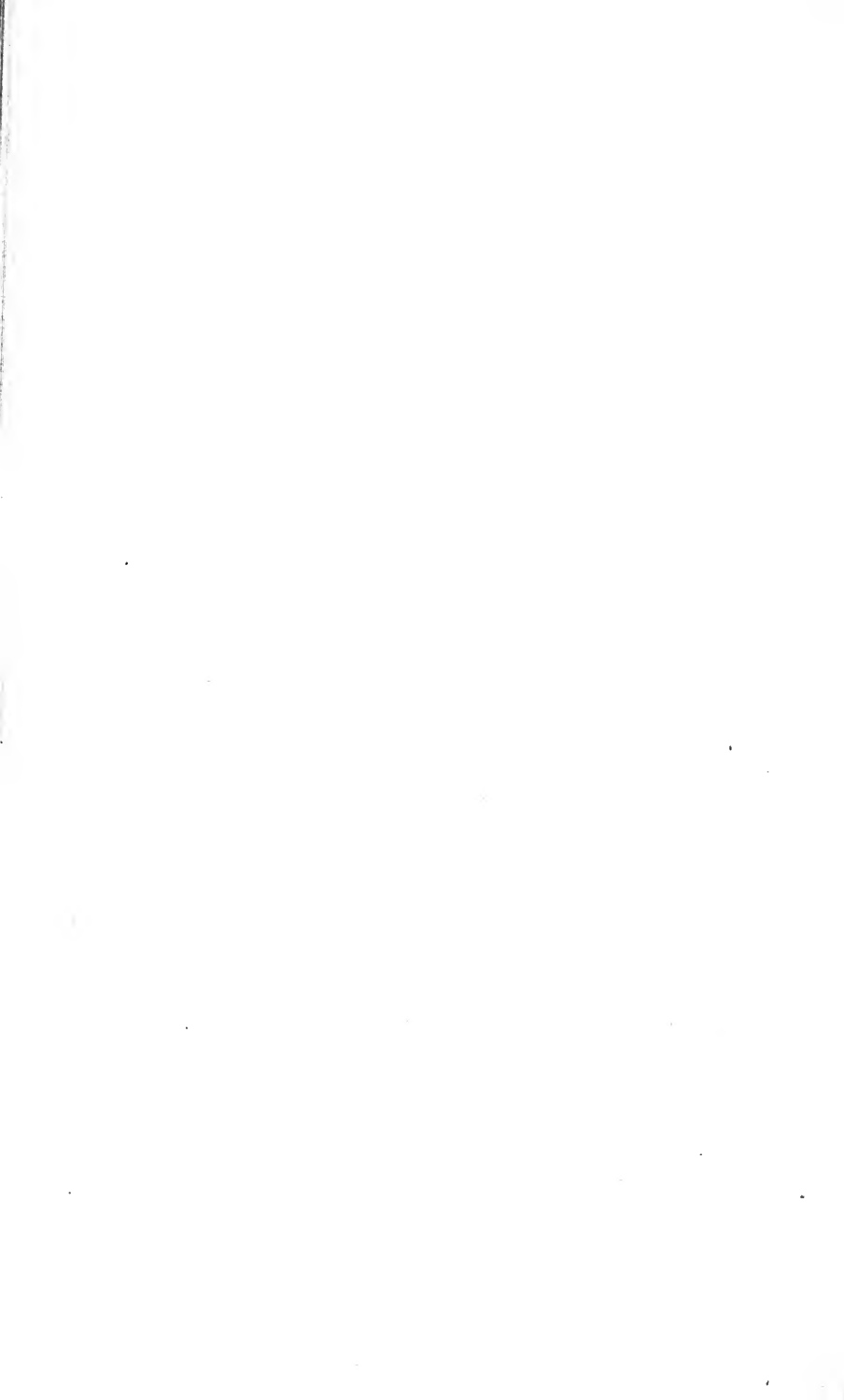


BROUGHTON (MANCHESTER) CABINET, TAILORING, MANTLE, SHIRT, UNDERCLOTHING, &c., FACTORIES.



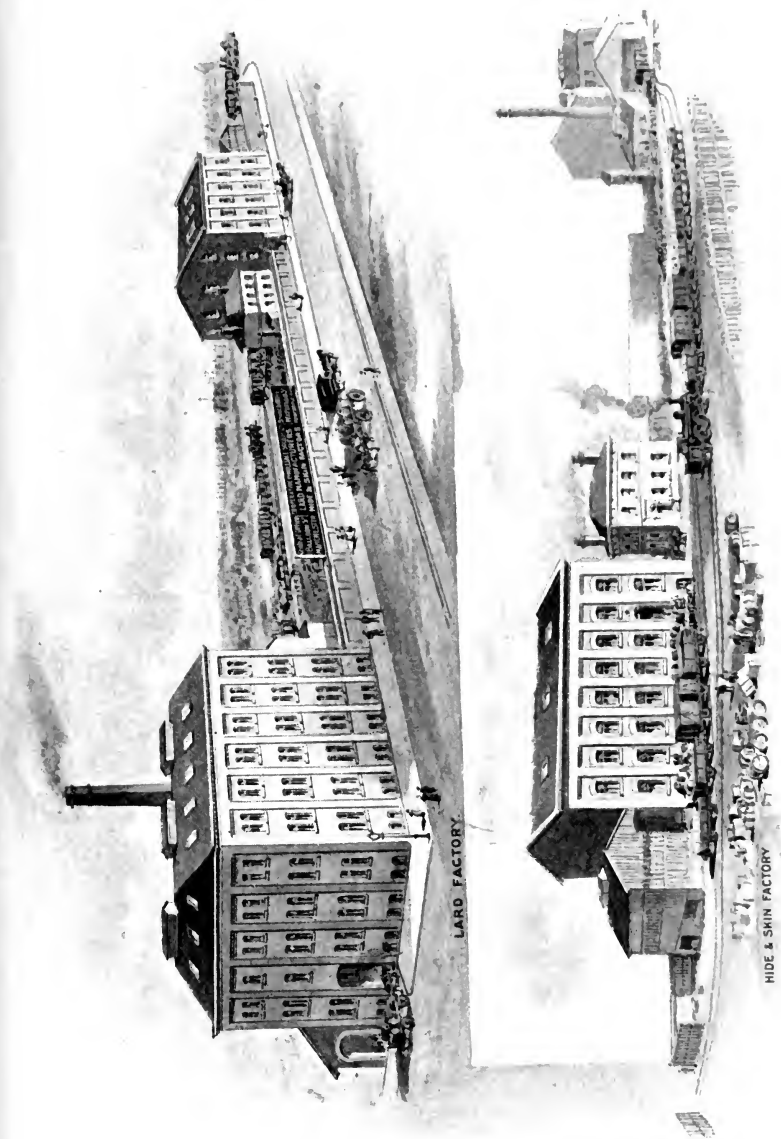


DESBOROUGH CORSET FACTORY.

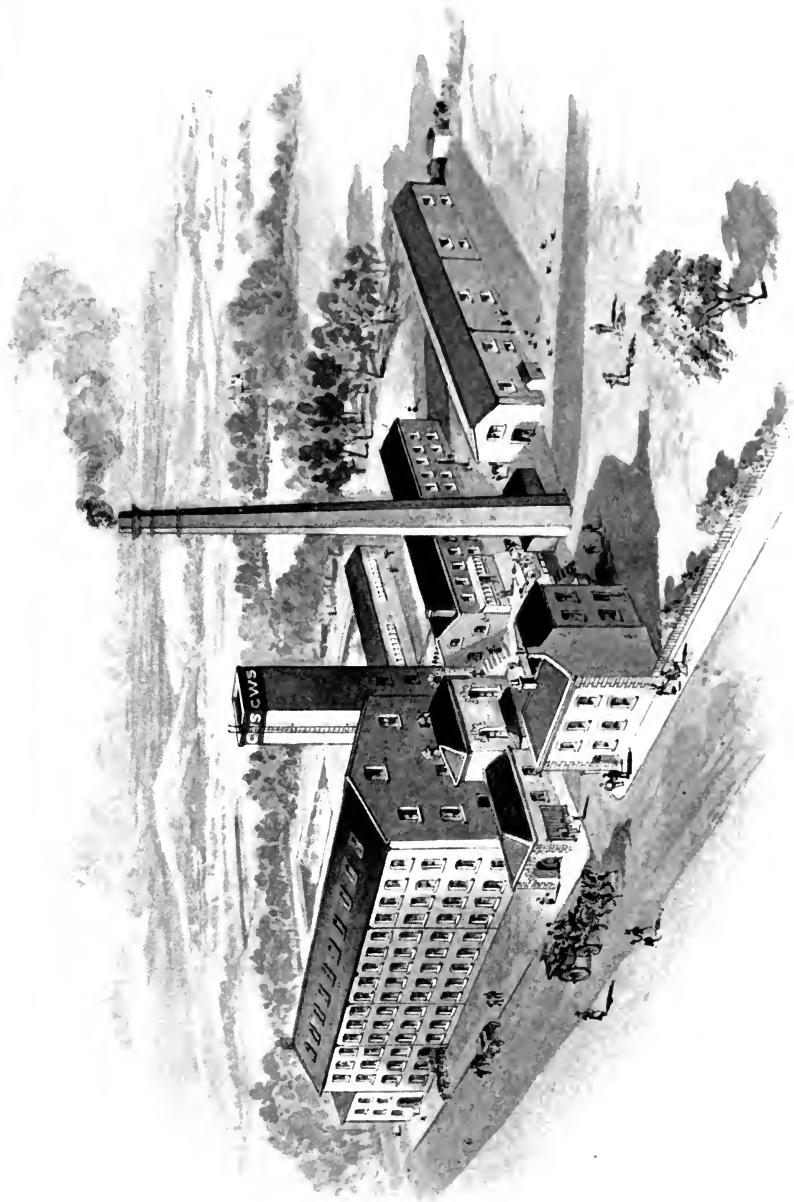




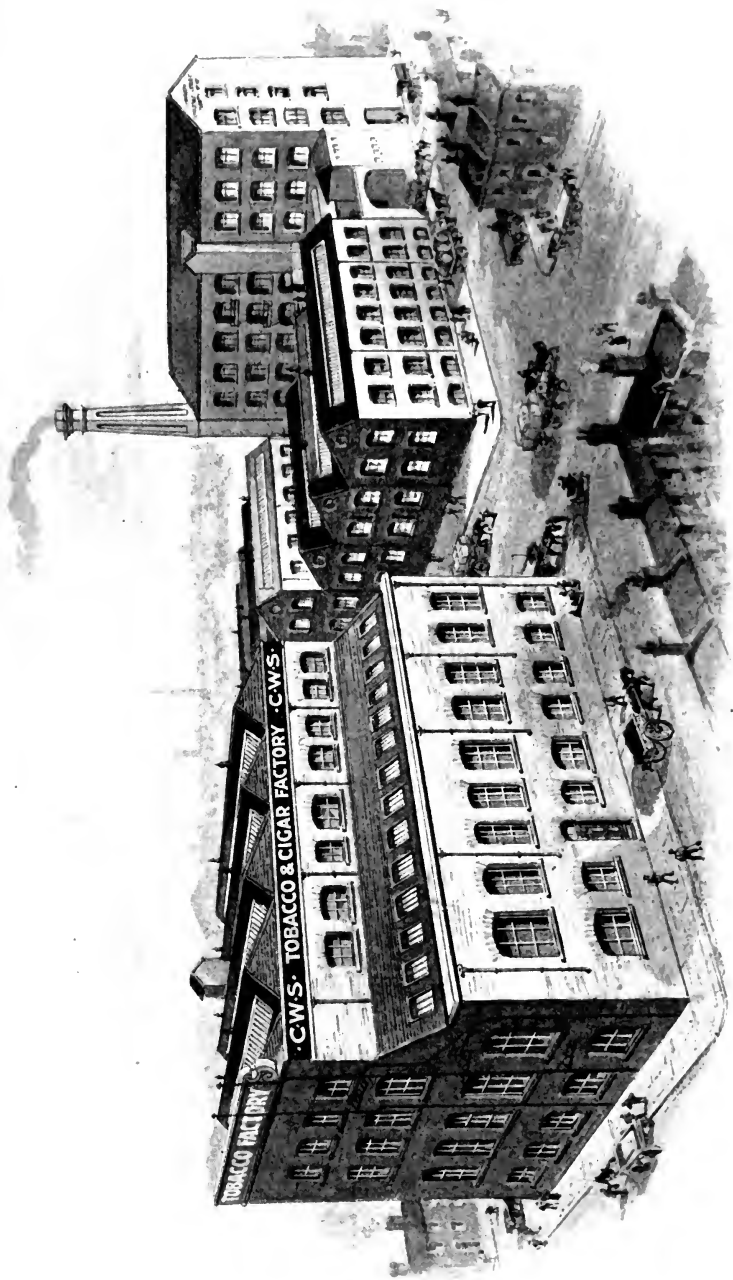
LONGSIGHT (MANCHESTER) PRINTING WORKS.



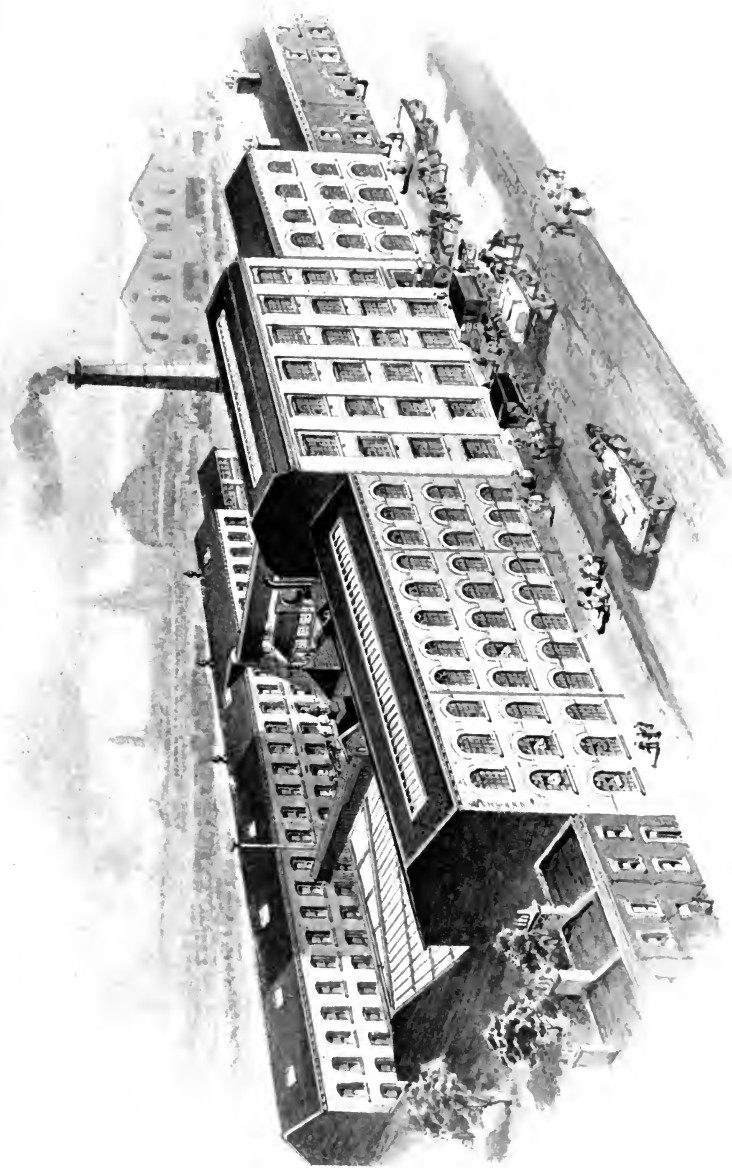
HARTLEPOOL LARD REFINERY AND HIDE AND SKIN FACTORY.



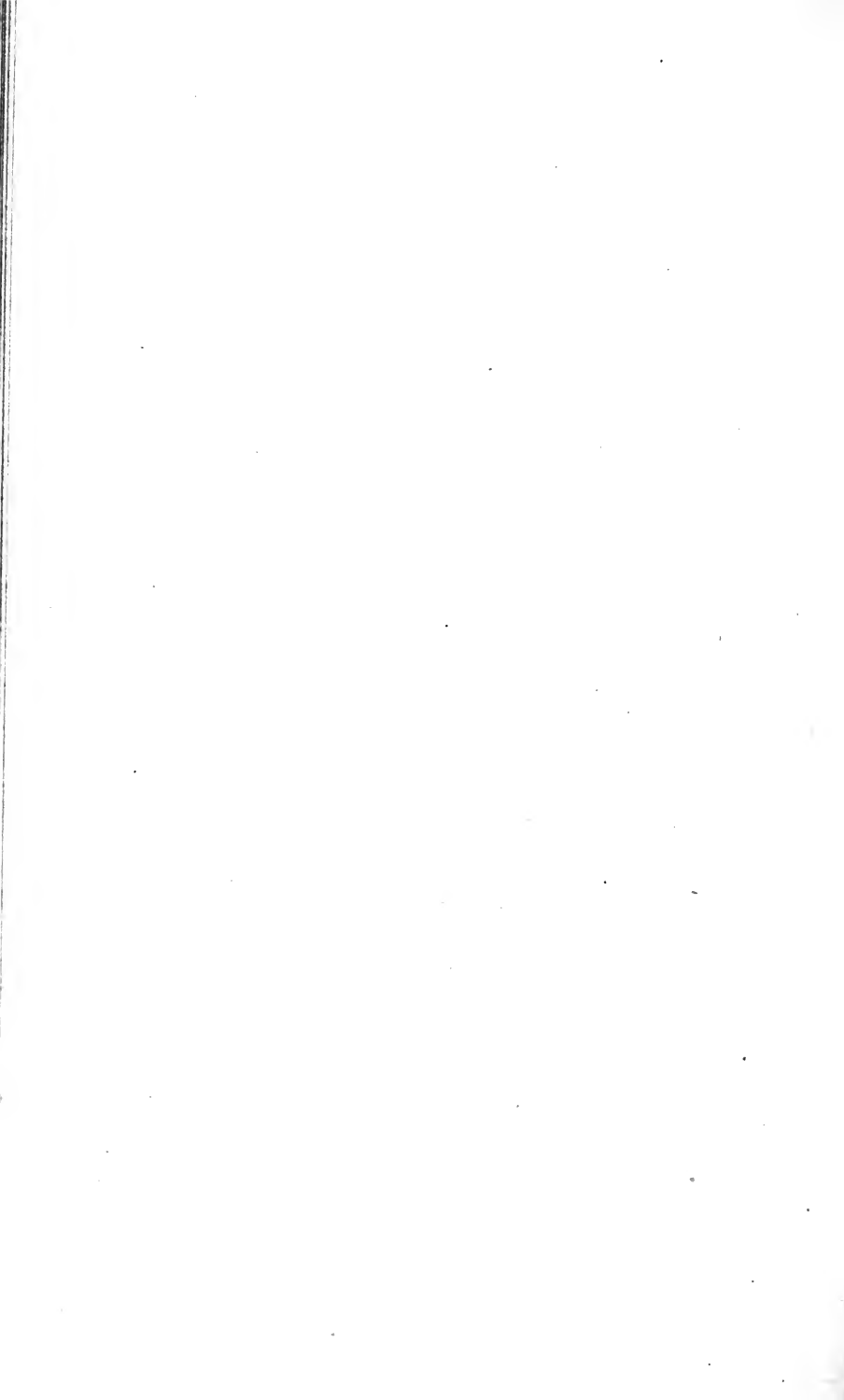
LITTLEBOROUGH FLANNEL FACTORY.



MANCHESTER TOBACCO FACTORY.

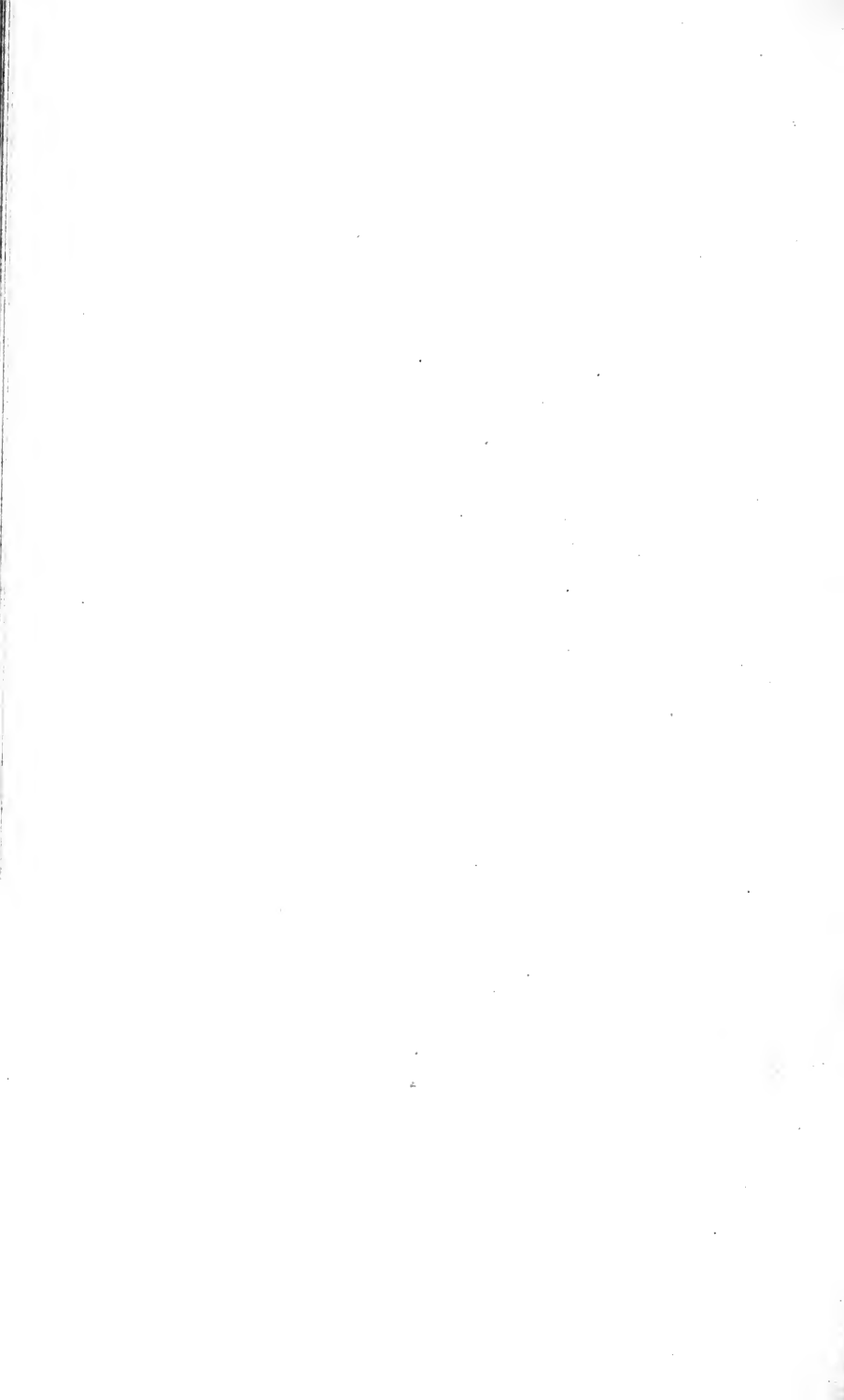


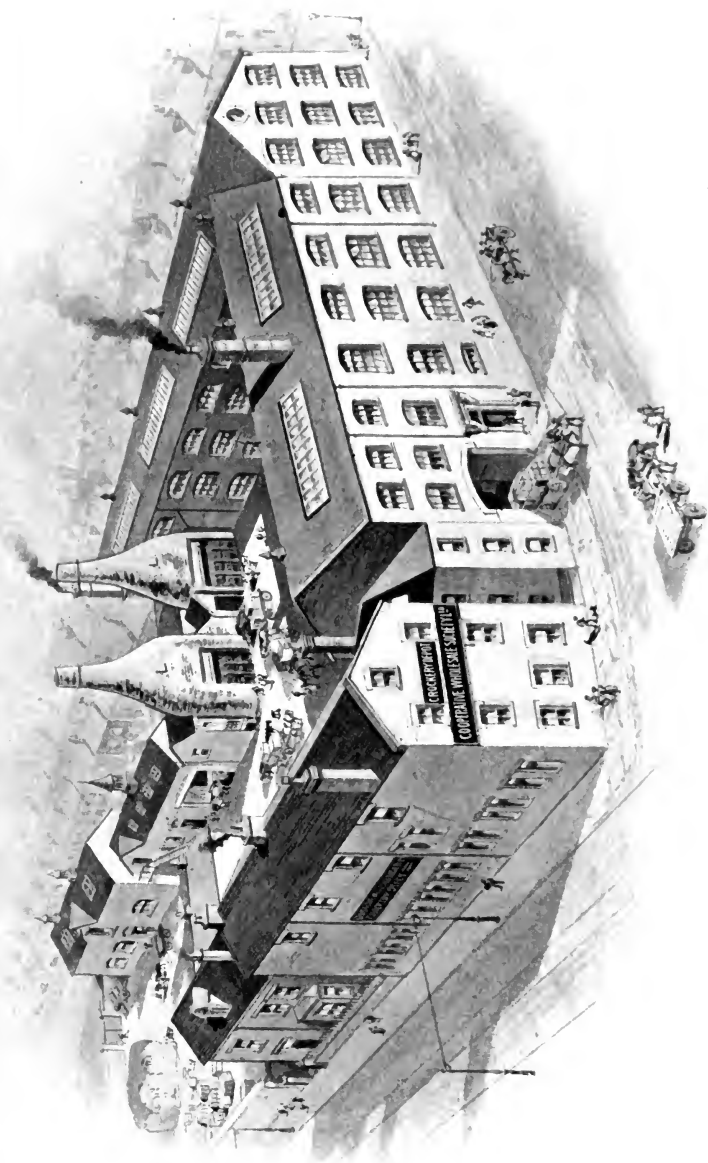
LEICESTER HOSIERY AND SHIRT FACTORY.



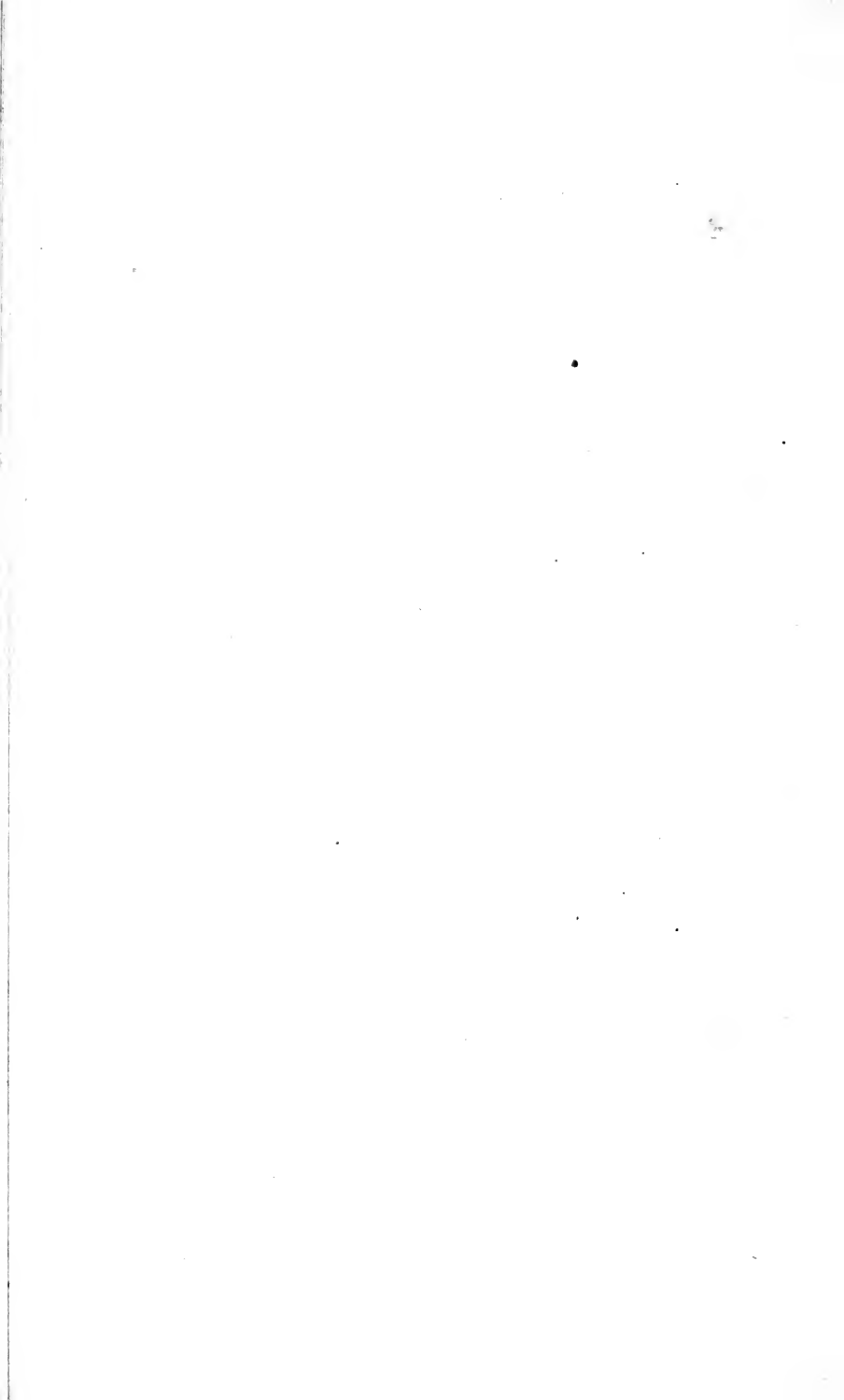


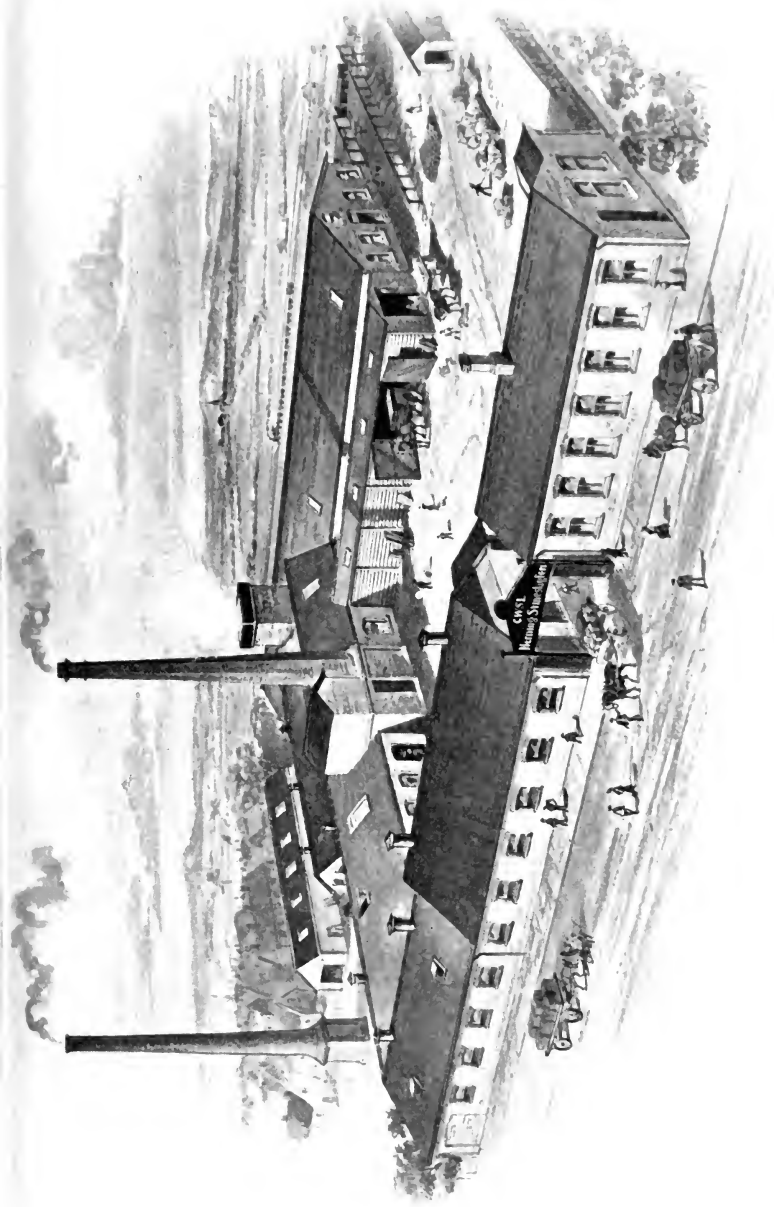
BURY WEAVING SHED.



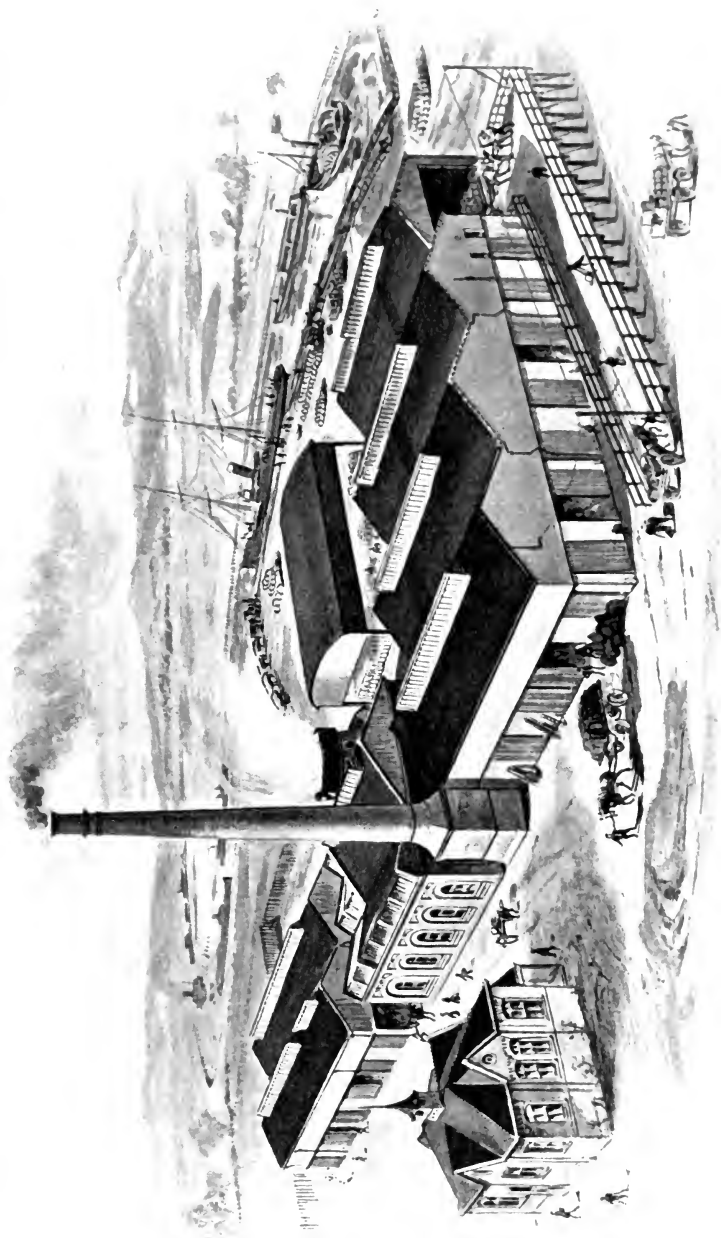


LONGTON CROCKERY DEPOT.

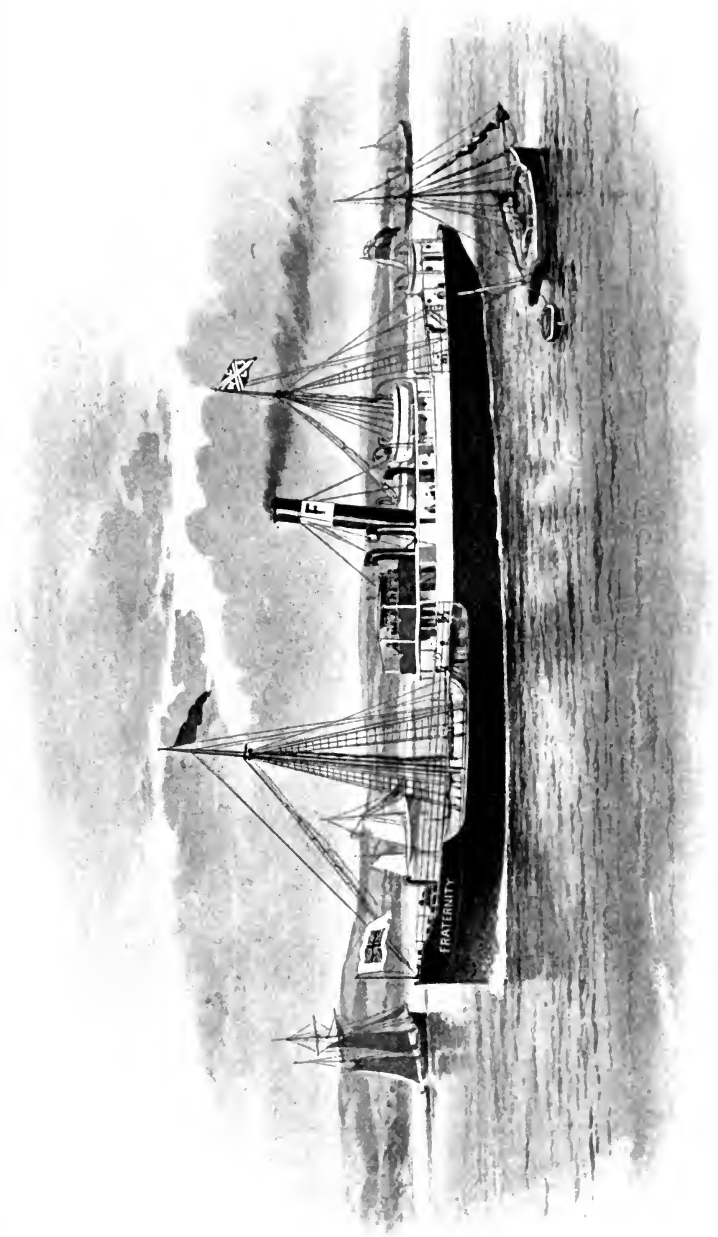




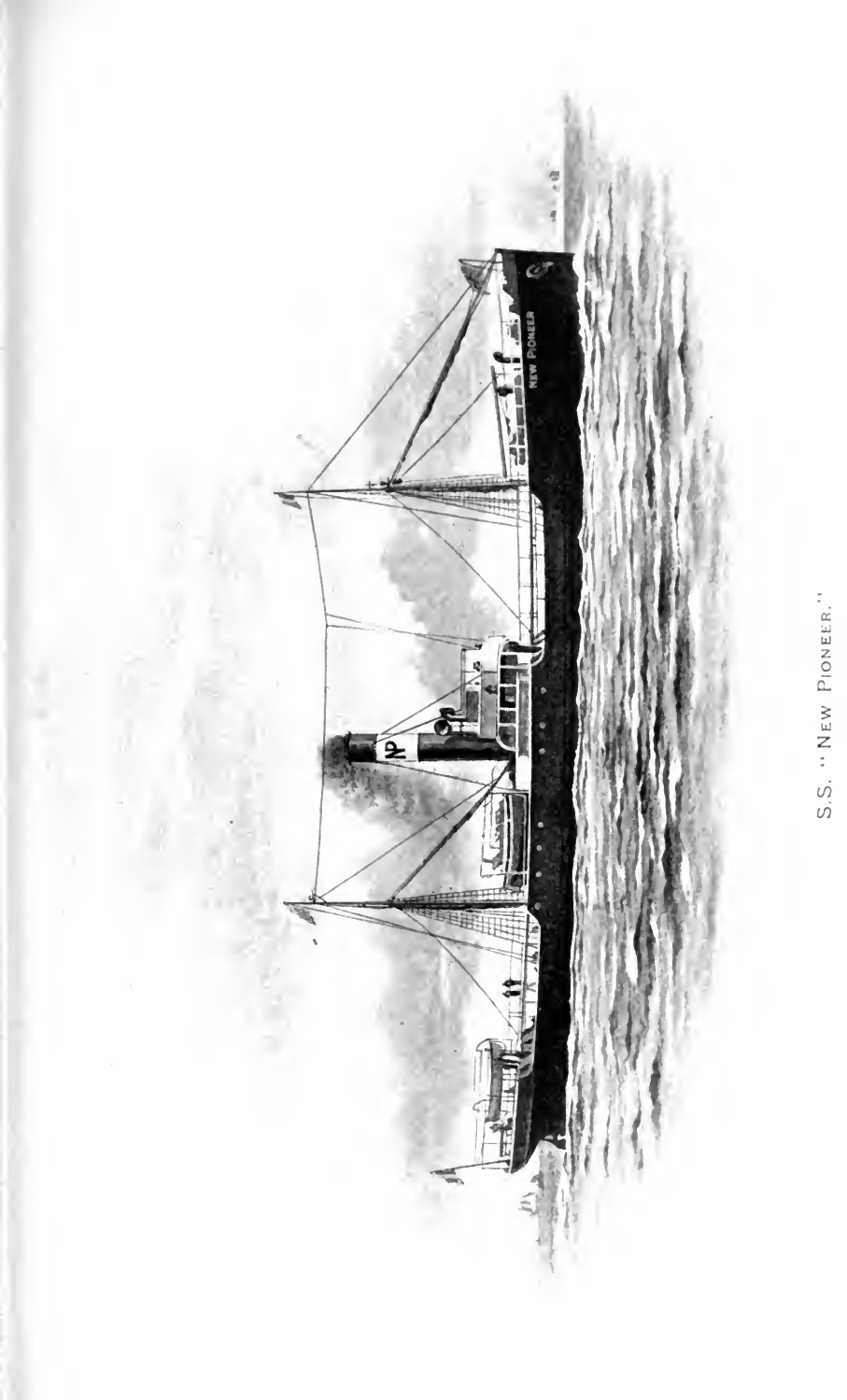
HERNING BACON FACTORY.



SYDNEY OIL AND TALLOW FACTORY.



S.S. "FRATERNITY."



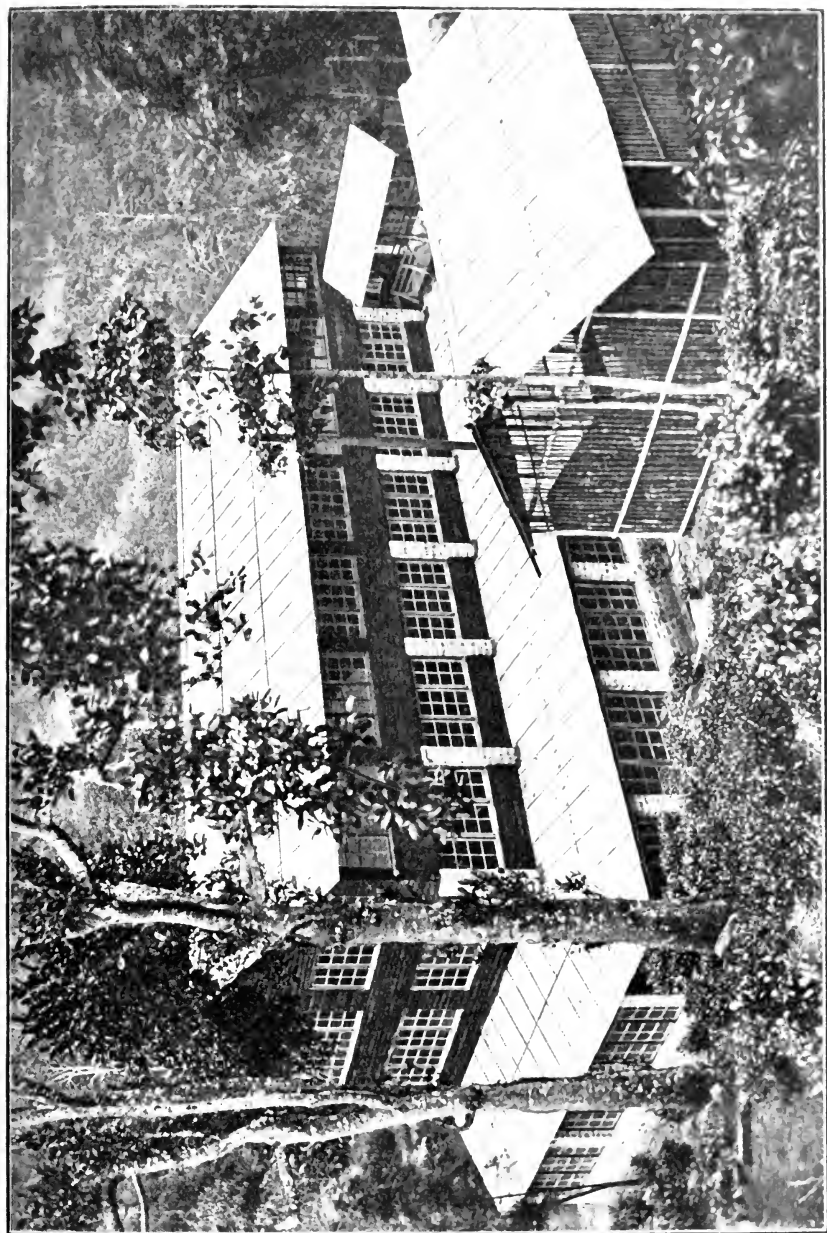
S.S. "NEW PIONEER."



RODEN CONVALESCENT HOME.

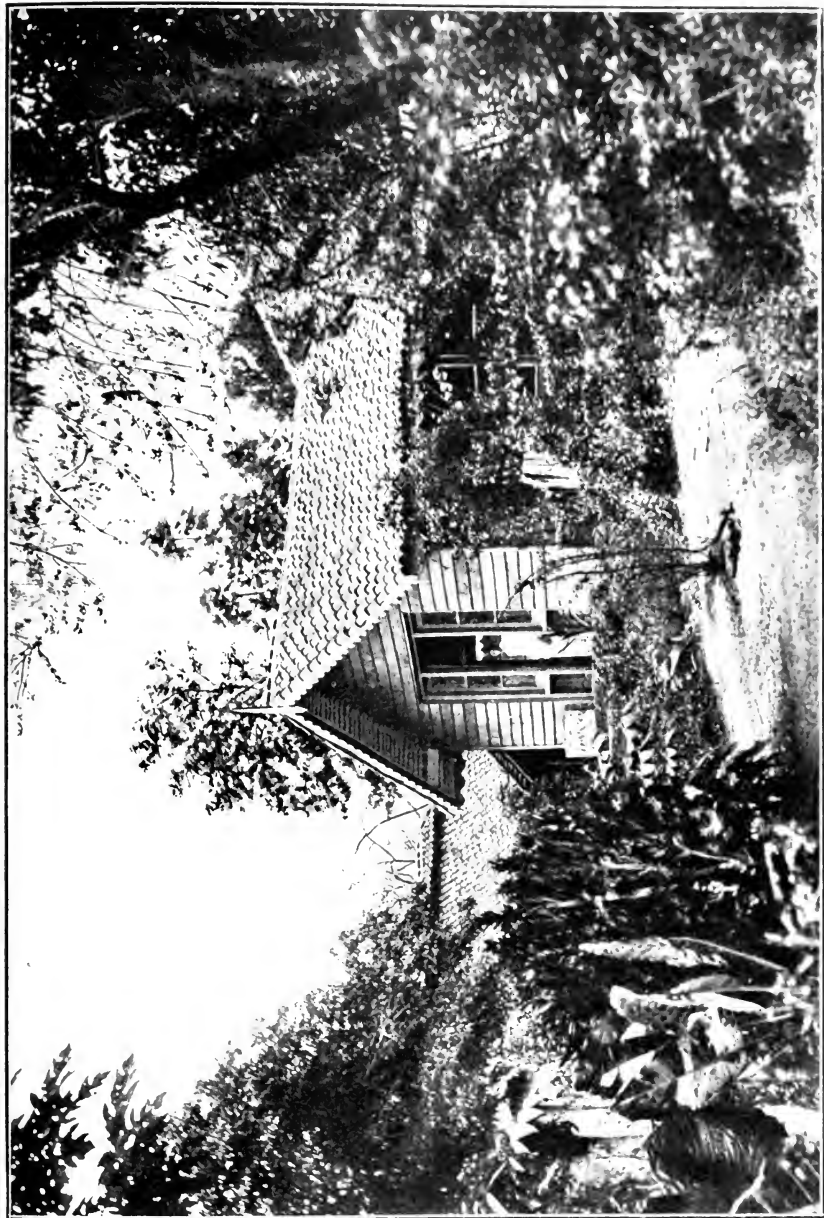


RODEN TOMATO HOUSES.

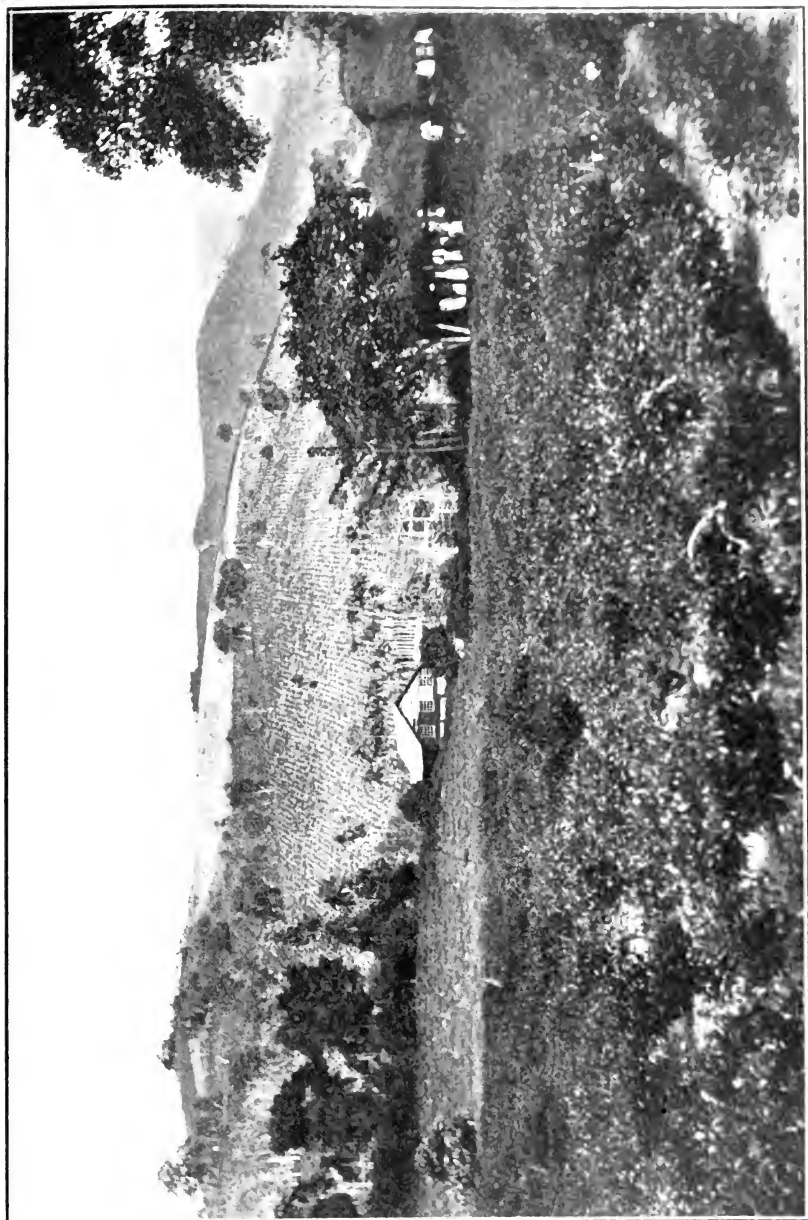


NUCAWELLA TEA FACTORY

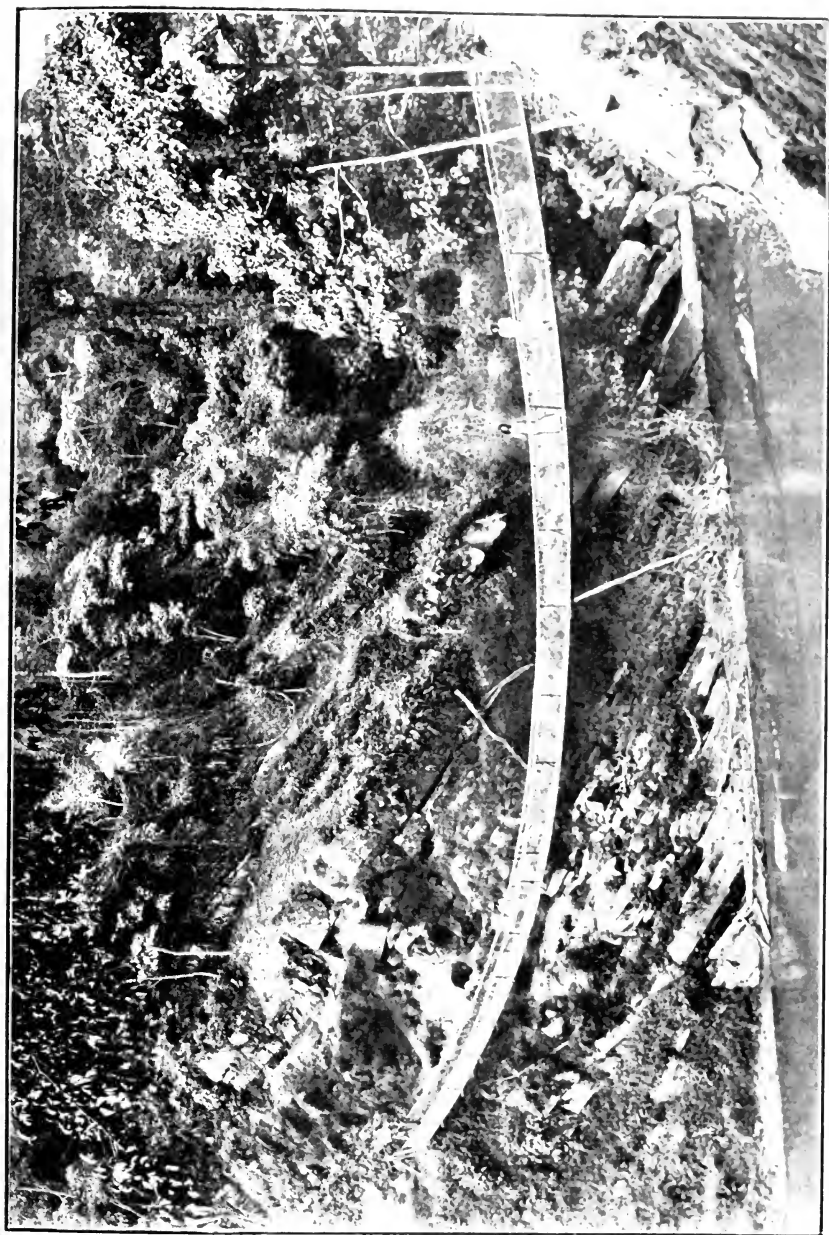




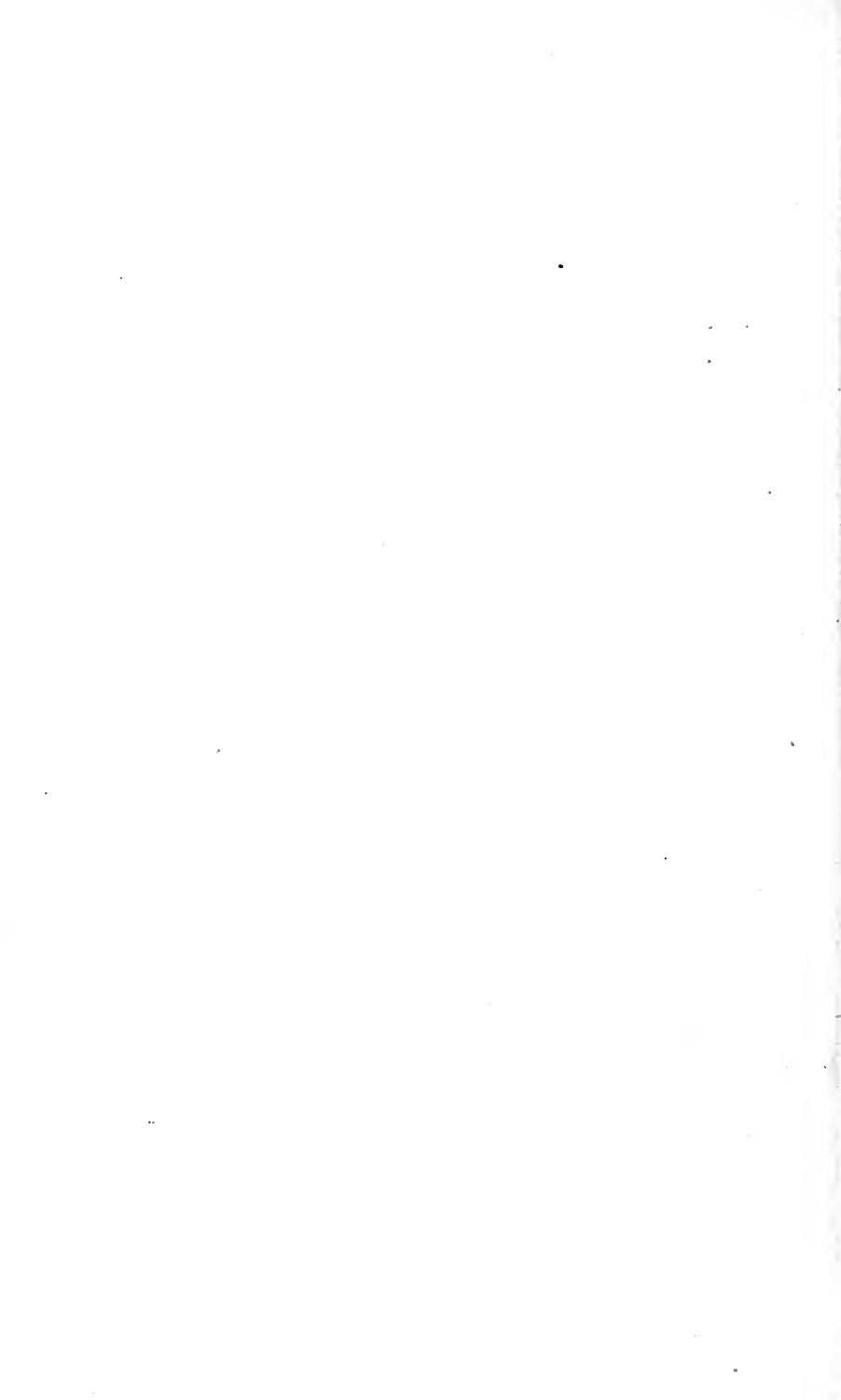
WELIGANGA BUNGALOW.



WELICANGA TEA ESTATE.



BRIDGE ACROSS THE RIVER MAHAWELICANGA.



The Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited.

ENROLLED AUGUST 11th, 1863,

under the Provisions of the Industrial and Provident Societies Act,
25 and 26 Vict., cap. 87, sec. 15, 1862.

BUSINESS COMMENCED MARCH 14th, 1864.

SHARES, £5 EACH, TRANSFERABLE.

Wholesale General Dealers, Manufacturers, Bankers, Millers, Printers,
Bookbinders, Boxmakers, Lithographers, Shipowners, Butter
Factors, Lard Reliners, Bacon Curers, Fruit Growers, Drysalters,
Spice Grinders, Saddlers, Tea Growers, Blenders, Packers, and
Importers, Dealers in Grocery and Provisions, Drapery, Woollens,
Ready-made Clothing, Boots and Shoes, Brushes, Crockery,
Carpets, Furniture, Coal, &c., &c., &c.



Manufacturers of Flour, Butter, Biscuits, Sweets, Preserves, Pickles,
Candied Peel, Cocoa, Chocolate, Tobacco, Cigars, Cigarettes,
Snuff, Soap, Candles, Glycerine, Starch, Boots and Shoes,
Saddlery, Woollens, Clothing, Flannels, Shirts, Mantles, Under-
clothing, Corsets, Millinery, Hosiery, Silesias, Pants, Ladies'
Underwear, Cardigans, Furniture, and Brushes.

CENTRAL OFFICES,
BANK, SHIPPING, AND COAL DEPARTMENT, GROCERY AND PROVISION,
AND BOOT AND SHOE WAREHOUSES:

Balloon Street, Manchester.

DRAPERY WAREHOUSES:

**Balloon Street and Dantzic Street,
Manchester.**

WOOLLEN CLOTH AND READY-MADES
WAREHOUSE:

Dantzic Street, Manchester.

FURNISHING WAREHOUSES:

GENERAL:

Holgate Street, Manchester.

CARPET:

Dantzic Street, Manchester.

STATIONERY DEPARTMENT AND
SADDLERY DEPARTMENT:

Corporation Street, Manchester.

HIDE AND SKIN DEPARTMENTS:

Elm Street, Manchester.

BRANCHES:

West Blandford St., Newcastle-on-Tyne,

AND

Leman Street, London, E.

SALEROOMS :

LEEDS, HUDDERSFIELD, NOTTINGHAM, BLACKBURN,
AND BIRMINGHAM.

PURCHASING AND FORWARDING DEPÔTS.

England :

LIVERPOOL, MANCHESTER, BRISTOL, LONGTON, GOOLE, GARSTON,
CARDIFF, AND NORTHAMPTON.

Ireland :

CORK, LIMERICK, TRALEE, AND ARMAGH.

America : NEW YORK.

Canada : MONTREAL.

France : CALAIS AND ROUEN.

Australia : SYDNEY.

Spain : DENIA.

Denmark : COPENHAGEN,
AARHUS,
ODENSE,
HERNING,
ESBJERG.

Germany : HAMBURG.

Sweden : GOTHENBURG.

IRISH CREAMERIES :

ABINGTON.
ANNACARTY.
AUGHADOWN.
BALLINAHINCH.
BALLINLOUGH.
BALLYBRICKEN.
BALLYFINANE.
BILBOA.
BOHERBUE.
BUNKAY BRIDGE.
CASTLEMAHON.
COACHFORD.
CUTTEEN.

DEVON ROAD.
DICKSGROVE.
DINGLE.
DOONAH.
DROMCLOUGH.
DUNGRUD.
EFFIN.
FEALE BRIDGE.
GLENMORE.
GORMANSTOWN.
GRANTSTOWN.
GREENANE.
GREYBRIDGE.

KILCOMMON.
KILMIHILL.
LIXNAW.
MOUNT COLLINS.
OOLA.
RATHMORE.
SMERLA BRIDGE.
STRADBALLY.
TARMON.
TERELTON.
TOEM.
TRALEE.

And 49 Auxiliaries.

PRODUCTIVE WORKS AND DEPARTMENTS.

Biscuits, Sweets, and Drysaltery Works:

CRUMPSALL, NEAR MANCHESTER.

Boot and Shoe Works:

LEICESTER, HECKMONDWIKE, AND RUSHDEN.

Soap, Candle, Glycerine, Lard, and Starch Works:

IRLAM.

Tallow and Oil Works:

SYDNEY (AUSTRALIA).

Woollen Cloth Works:

LIVINGSTONE MILL, BATLEY.

Clothing Factories:

HOLBECK (LEEDS), BROUGHTON (MANCHESTER),
AND PELAW-ON-TYNE.

Cocoa and Chocolate Works:

DALLOW ROAD, LUTON.

Flour Mills:

DUNSTON-ON-TYNE, SILVERTOWN (LONDON),
ROCHDALE, OLDHAM, AND MANCHESTER.

Furniture Factory:

BROUGHTON (MANCHESTER).

Printing, Bookbinding, Boxmaking, and Lithographic Works:

LONGSIGHT (MANCHESTER).

Preserve, Candied Pee, and Pickle Works:

MIDDLETON JUNCTION.

PRODUCTIVE WORKS AND DEPARTMENTS—*contd.*

Shirts, Mantles, Underclothing, and Millinery:

BROUGHTON (MANCHESTER).

Cabinet, Paper, Tailoring, Shirts, Kerseys, Drugs, &c.:

PELAW, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.

Tailoring and Bedding:

LONDON.

Bacon Factories:

TRALEE (IRELAND) AND HERNING (DENMARK).

Lard Refineries:

WEST HARTLEPOOL AND IRLAM.

Tobacco, Cigar, Cigarette, and Snuff Factory:

SHARP STREET, MANCHESTER.

Pepper Factory:

HANOVER STREET, MANCHESTER.

Flannel Factory:

HARE HILL MILLS, LITTLEBORO'.

Corset Factory:

DESBOROUGH.

Hosiery, &c., Factory:

CRANBOURNE STREET, LEICESTER.

Tea Gardens:

CEYLON.

Weaving Shed:

GIGG, BURY.

Brush Works:

LEEDS.

Fruit Farms:

RODEN (SHROPSHIRE), MARDEN (HEREFORD).

SHIPOWNERS AND SHIPPERS

BETWEEN

GARSTON AND ROUEN; MANCHESTER AND ROUEN.

STEAMSHIPS OWNED BY THE SOCIETY:

"FRATERNITY." "NEW PIONEER." "DINAH."

"BRITON."

BANKING DEPARTMENT.

Agencies:

THE LONDON AND COUNTY BANK LIMITED.

THE MANCHESTER AND COUNTY BANK LIMITED.

THE NATIONAL PROVINCIAL BANK OF ENGLAND LIMITED.

THE MANCHESTER AND LIVERPOOL DISTRICT BANK LIMITED.

THE LANCASHIRE AND YORKSHIRE BANK LIMITED.

THE UNION BANK OF MANCHESTER LIMITED.

THE LONDON CITY AND MIDLAND BANK LIMITED.

WILLIAMS DEACON BANK LIMITED.

MESSRS. BARCLAY AND CO. LIMITED, LONDON AND BRANCHES.

MESSRS. LAMBTON AND CO., NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE,
AND BRANCHES.

GENERAL COMMITTEE.

ADAMS, Mr. THOMAS, 12, Park View, Stockton-on-Tees.
 BATES, Mr. WILLIAM, Poplar House, 11, Cromwell Road, Patricroft.
 BLAND, Mr. THOMAS, Rashcliffe, Huddersfield.
 BROWN, Mr. WILLIAM H., 1, Cardiff Road, Newport, Mon.
 CIAPPESSONI, Mr. FRANK A., 55, Etterby Road, Carlisle.
 COLEY, Mr. PHILIP, 22, Stansfield Street, Sunderland.
 DEANS, Mr. ADAM, 26, Chesnut Road, Plumstead, Woolwich.
 ELSEY, Mr. HENRY, Bickleigh, Festing Grove, Festing Road, Southsea.
 FAIRCLOUGH, Mr. JAMES, 33, Sackville Street, Barnsley.
 GIBSON, Mr. ROBERT, 120, Sidney Grove, Newcastle-on-Tyne.
 GOODEY, Mr. JAMES F., New Town Lodge, Colchester, Essex.
 GRAHAM, Mr. WILLIAM D., 123, Bedeburn Road, Jarrow-on-Tyne.
 GRINDROD, Mr. EMMANUEL, 13, Holker Street, Keighley.
 HAWKINS, Mr. GEORGE, 79, Kingston Road, Oxford.
 HEMINGWAY, Mr. WASHINGTON, 108, Bolton Road, Pendleton,
 Manchester.
 HIND, Mr. THOMAS, 53, St. Peter's Road, Leicester.
 HINES, Mr. GEORGE, North Bank, Belstead Road, Ipswich.
 HOLT, Mr. ROBERT, 43, Deeplish Road, Rochdale.
 KILLON, Mr. THOMAS, 45, Heywood Street, Bury.
 LANDER, Mr. WILLIAM, 32, Grosvenor Street, Bolton.
 LORD, Mr. JOHN, 19, Tremellen Street, Accrington.
 McINNES, Mr. DUNCAN, Hamilton Road, Lincoln.
 MOORHOUSE, Mr. THOMAS E., *Reporter* Office, Delph.
 MORT, Mr. ISAAC, 233, High Road, Leyton, Essex.
 PINGSTONE, Mr. HENRY C., Yew Bank, Brook Road, Heaton Chapel,
 Manchester.
 PUMPHREY, Mr. HENRY, Paddock Terrace, Lewes.
 SHILLITO, Mr. JOHN (*President*), 4, Park View, Hopwood Lane, Halifax.
 SHOTTON, Mr. THOMAS, Summerhill, Shotley Bridge, Durham.
 THORPE, Mr. GEORGE, 6, Northfield, Highroyd, Dewsbury.
 TWEDDELL, Mr. THOMAS (*Vice-President*), Hutton Avenue, West
 Hartlepool.
 WARWICK, Mr. JOSEPH, 7, Waterville Terrace, North Shields.
 WOODHOUSE, Mr. GEORGE, The Laurels, 27, Renals Street, Derby.

SCRUTINEERS :

Mr. F. HARDERN, Oldham. | Mr. J. J. BARSTOW, Dewsbury.

AUDITORS :

Mr. THOS. J. BAYLIS, Masborough.	Mr. JAMES E. LORD, Rochdale.
Mr. THOMAS WOOD, Manchester.	Mr. C. J. BECKETT, Darwen.

OFFICERS OF THE SOCIETY.

Secretary and Accountant:
Mr. THOMAS BRODRICK.

Bank Manager and Cashier:
Mr. JOHN HOLDEN.

BUYERS, SALESMEN, &c.

Manchester—Grocery and Provisions:

Mr. JAS. MASTIN.
Mr. A. W. LOBB.

Mr. LEWIS WILSON.
Mr. JOSEPH HOLDEN.

Manchester—Paper, Twine, &c.

Mr. H. WIGGINS.

Manchester—Drapery:

Mr. J. C. FODEN.
Mr. A. ACKROYD.
Mr. C. MARKLAND.
Mr. P. RYDER.

Mr. G. TOMLINSON.
Mr. J. BLOMELEY.
Mr. J. BOWDEN.
Mr. E. LEES.

Manchester—Woollens, Boots, and Furniture:

Woollens and Ready-mades	Mr. W. GIBSON.
Boots and Shoes and Saddlery	Mr. HENRY JACKSON.
General Furnishing	Mr. T. R. ALLEN.
Furniture	Mr. F. E. HOWARTH.

Shipping Department:

Mr. A. E. MENZIES.

Coal Department:

Mr. S. ALLEN.

Shipping and Forwarding Dépôts:

Rouen (France)	Mr. JAMES MARQUIS.
Goole	Mr. E. W. RAPER.

London:

Tea and Coffee	Mr. W. B. PRICE.
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Luton:

Cocoa and Chocolate	Mr. E. J. STAFFORD.
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Liverpool:

Grocery and Provisions	Mr. WM. L. KEWLEY.
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Salerooms:

Leeds	Mr. WM. POLLARD.
Nottingham	Mr. A. DELVES.
Huddersfield	Mr. J. O'BRIEN.
Birmingham	Mr. W. AMOS.
Blackburn	Mr. H. SHELMEERDINE.

Longton:

Crockery Dépôt	Mr. J. RHODES.
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Sydney (Australia):
Mr. JOHN ROYLE.

MANAGERS, PRODUCTIVE, &c., WORKS.

CRUMPSALL BISCUIT, &c., WORKS	Mr. GEORGE BRILL.
MIDDLETON JUNCTION PRESERVE, CANDIED PEEL, AND PICKLE WORKS.....	Mr. W. S. SPENCE.
IRLAM SOAP, CANDLE, GLYCERINE, LARD, AND STARCH WORKS.....	Mr. J. E. GREEN.
SYDNEY (AUSTRALIA) TALLOW & OIL WORKS	Mr. LOXLEY MEGGITT.
DUNSTON FLOUR MILL	Mr. TOM PARKINSON.
SILVERTOWN „	Mr. G. V. CHAPMAN.
MANCHESTER (TRAFFORD PARK) SUN FLOUR AND PROVENDER MILL....	Mr. W. MATTHEWS.
OLDHAM STAR FLOUR MILL	
ROCHDALE FLOUR MILL	
MANCHESTER TOBACCO, CIGAR, CIGARETTE, AND SNUFF FACTORY *.....	Mr. J. C. CRAGG.
WEST HARTLEPOOL LARD FACTORY	Mr. W. HOLLAND.
MANCHESTER PRINTING, BOOKBINDING, BOX- MAKING, AND LITHOGRAPHIC WORKS..	Mr. G. BREARLEY.
LITTLEBORO' FLANNEL FACTORY	Mr. W. H. GREENWOOD.
LEICESTER HOSIERY AND SHIRT FACTORY..	Mr. E. A. DAVIS.
DESBOROUGH CORSET FACTORY	Mr. P. THOMAS.
BATLEY WOOLLEN CLOTH WORKS	Mr. S. BOOTHROYD.
BURY WEAVING SHED	Mr. H. BLACKBURN.
LEEDS CLOTHING FACTORY	Mr. WILLIAM UTTLEY.
BROUGHTON „	Mr. A. GRIERSON.
LEICESTER BOOT AND SHOE WORKS	Mr. T. E. HUBBARD.
HECKMONDWIKE „ „	Mr. J. YORKE.
RUSHDEN „ „	Mr. F. BALLARD.
BROUGHTON CABINET FACTORY	Mr. F. E. HOWARTH.
LEEDS BRUSH FACTORY	Mr. A. W. SAUNDERS.
PELAW PRINTING WORKS	Mr. H. GLENNY.
PELAW DRUG AND SUNDRIES WORKS	Mr. R. A. WALLIS.
PELAW ENGINEERING WORKS.....	Mr. WM. FLETCHER.
BUILDING DEPARTMENT.....	Mr. P. HEYHURST.
ARCHITECT	Mr. F. E. L. HARRIS, A.R.I.B.A.

EMPLOYÉS.

NUMBER OF EMPLOYÉS, OCTOBER, 1906.

DISTRIBUTIVE DEPARTMENTS.		Collective Totals.
General, Drapery, Woollens, Boot and Shoe, and Fur-		
nishing Offices.....	Manchester	502
Bank	"	32
Architect's Office	"	16
Grocery Department	"	402
Paper, Twine, and Stationery Department	"	12
Drapery Department	"	208
Woollen Cloth Department	"	48
Boot and Shoe, and Saddlery Department	"	60
Furnishing Department	"	88
Shipping	"	6
Coal	"	8
Building	"	416
Dining-room	"	34
Engineers'	"	18
Other	"	61
		1,911
BRANCHES.		
Newcastle (Office and Departments)		655
" Pelaw Drug and Drysaltery		230
" " Paper and Printing		73
" " Cabinet Works		162
" " Engineering Shop		92
" " Dining-room		4
" " Clothing Factory		274
		1,490
London (Office and Departments)		357
" Bacon		16
" Tailoring		126
" Bedding and Upholstery and Polishing		14
" Building		42
" Stables		35
" Engineers		24
" Silvertown Factory		144
		758
JOINT ENGLISH AND SCOTTISH C.W.S.		
London Tea		464
" Office and Saleroom		42
" Coffee		19
Tea Estates.....		374
		899
DEPÔTS.		
Bristol		172
Cardiff		31
Northampton		25
		228
Carried forward.....		5,286

NUMBER OF EMPLOYÉS, OCTOBER, 1906.

	Collective Totals.
Brought forward	5,286
PURCHASING DEPÔTS.	
Liverpool Branch—Grocery and Shipping	85
Longton Crockery	52
Irish Branches	92
„ Creameries	357
Tralee Bacon Factory	70
	656
FOREIGN PURCHASING DEPÔTS.	
New York	6
Montreal	4
Copenhagen	22
Hamburg	3
Aarhus	14
Gothenburg	11
Odense	9
Denia	3
Sydney	9
Herning	23
Esbjerg	9
	113
SALEROOMS.	
Leeds	4
Nottingham	3
Birmingham	2
Huddersfield	1
Blackburn	1
	11
SHIPPING OFFICES.	
Goole	5
Garston	1
Rouen	14
	20
STEAMSHIPS.	
“New Pioneer”	14
“Fraternity”	15
“Briton”	4
“Dinah”	4
	37
Carried forward	6,123

NUMBER OF EMPLOYÉS, OCTOBER, 1906.

	Collective Totals.
Brought forward	6,123
PRODUCTIVE WORKS.	
Batley Woollen Mill	222
Brislington Butter Factory	16
Broughton Cabinet Factory	139
" Mantle " 	90
" Shirt " 	360
" Tailoring " 	492
" Underclothing Factory	65
" Millinery	21
Bury Weaving Shed.....	261
Crumpsall Biscuit Works	571
Desboro' Corset Factory	190
Dunston Corn Mill	153
Enderby	151
Heckmondwike Currying Department.....	32
" Shoe Works	335
Irlam Soap Works	632
Leicester Shoe Works, Knighton Fields.....	1,587
" " Duns Lane	445
" Hosiery Factory	361
Leeds Ready-Mades	563
" Brush Factory	90
Littleborough Flannel Factory.....	100
Longsight Printing Works.....	750
Luton Cocoa Works (Joint English and Scottish C.W.S.)	195
Manchester Tobacco Factory	600
Middleton Junction Preserve Works	470
Rochdale Corn Mill	0
Rushden Boot Factory	563
Silvertown Corn Mill	120
Star Corn Mill	66
Sun Corn Mill	125
Sydney Tallow Factory	41
West Hartlepool Lard Refinery.....	32
	— 9,898
Roden Estate.....	61
" Convalescent Home.....	8
Marden Fruit Farm	26
	—
Total.....	16,116

MEETINGS AND OTHER COMING EVENTS

IN CONNECTION WITH THE SOCIETY IN 1907.



Feb. 2—SATURDAY....Nomination Lists: Last day for receiving.

Mar. 5—TUESDAYVoting Lists: Last day for receiving.

„ 9—SATURDAY....Divisional Quarterly Meetings.

„ 16—SATURDAY....General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.

May 4—SATURDAY....Nomination Lists: Last day for receiving.

June 4—TUESDAYVoting Lists: Last day for receiving.

„ 8—SATURDAY....Divisional Quarterly Meetings.

15—SATURDAY....General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.

„ 22—SATURDAY....Half-yearly Stocktaking.

Aug. 10—SATURDAY....Nomination Lists: Last day for receiving.

Sept. 10—TUESDAYVoting Lists: Last day for receiving.

„ 14—SATURDAY....Divisional Quarterly Meetings.

„ 21—SATURDAY....General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.

Nov. 9—SATURDAY....Nomination Lists: Last day for receiving.

Dec. 10—TUESDAYVoting Lists: Last day for receiving.

„ 14—SATURDAY....Divisional Quarterly Meetings.

„ 21—SATURDAY....General Quarterly Meeting—Manchester.

„ 28—SATURDAY....Half-yearly Stocktaking.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN CONNECTION WITH THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY SINCE ITS COMMENCEMENT.

YEAR.	DAY.	EVENTS.
1863	.. Aug. 11 ..	Co-operative Wholesale Society enrolled.
1864	.. Mar. 14 ..	Co-operative Wholesale Society commenced business.
1866	.. April 24 ..	Tipperary Branch opened.
1868	.. June 1 ..	Kilmallock Branch opened.
1869	.. Mar. 1 ..	Balloon Street Warehouse opened.
"	.. July 12 ..	Limerick Branch opened.
1871	.. Nov. 26 ..	Newcastle-on-Tyne Branch opened.
1872	.. July 1 ..	Manchester Boot and Shoe Department commenced.
"	.. Oct. 14 ..	Bank Department commenced.
1873	.. Jan. 13 ..	Crumpsall Works purchased.
"	.. April 14 ..	Armagh Branch opened.
"	.. June 2 ..	Manchester Drapery Department established.
"	.. July 14 ..	Waterford Branch opened.
"	.. Aug. 4 ..	Cheshire Branch opened.
"	.. " 4 ..	Leicester Works purchased.
"	.. " 16 ..	Insurance Fund established.
"	.. Sept. 15 ..	Leicester Works commenced.
1874	.. Feb. 2 ..	Tralee Branch opened.
"	.. Mar. 9 ..	London Branch established.
"	.. Oct. 5 ..	Durham Soap Works commenced.
1875	.. April 2 ..	Liverpool Purchasing Department commenced.
"	.. June 15 ..	Manchester Drapery Warehouse, Dantzic Street, opened.
1876	.. Feb. 14 ..	Newcastle Branch Buildings, Waterloo Street, opened.
"	.. " 21 ..	New York Branch established.
"	.. May 24 ..	S.S. "Plover" purchased.
"	.. July 16 ..	Manchester Furnishing Department commenced.
"	.. Aug. 5 ..	Leicester Works first Extensions opened.
1877	.. Jan. 15 ..	Cork Branch established.
"	.. Oct. 25 ..	Land in Liverpool purchased.
1879	.. Feb. 21 ..	S.S. "Pioneer," Launch of.
"	.. Mar. 24 ..	Rouen Branch opened.
"	.. Mar. 29 ..	S.S. "Pioneer," Trial trip.
"	.. June 30 ..	Goole Forwarding Department opened.
1880	.. Jan. 30 ..	S.S. "Plover" sold.
"	.. July 27 ..	S.S. "Cambrian" purchased.
"	.. Aug. 14 ..	Heckmondwike Boot and Shoe Works commenced.
"	.. Sept. 27 ..	London Drapery Department commenced in new premises, 99, Leman Street.
1881	.. June 6 ..	Copenhagen Branch opened.
1882	.. Jan. 18 ..	Garston Forwarding Depot commenced.
"	.. Oct. 31 ..	Leeds Saleroom opened.
"	.. Nov. 1 ..	London Tea and Coffee Department commenced.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN CONNECTION WITH THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

SINCE ITS COMMENCEMENT—*continued.*

YEAR.	DAY.	EVENTS.
1883	.. July 21 ..	S.S. "Marianne Briggs" purchased.
1884	.. April 7 ..	Hamburg Branch commenced.
"	.. May 31 ..	Leicester Works second Extensions opened.
"	.. June 25 ..	Newcastle Branch—New Drapery Warehouse opened.
"	.. Sept. 13 ..	Commemoration of the Society's Twenty-first Anniversary at Newcastle-on-Tyne and London.
"	.. " 20 ..	Commemoration of the Society's Twenty-first Anniversary at Manchester.
"	.. " 29 ..	Bristol Depôt commenced.
"	.. Oct. 6 ..	S.S. "Progress," Launch of.
1885	.. Aug. 25 ..	Huddersfield Saleroom opened.
"	.. Dec. 30 ..	Fire—Tea Department, London.
1886	.. April 22 ..	Nottingham Saleroom opened.
"	.. Aug. 25 ..	Longton Crockery Depôt opened.
"	.. Oct. 12 ..	S.S. "Federation," Launch of.
1887	.. Mar. 14 ..	Batley Mill commenced.
"	.. June 1 ..	S.S. "Progress" damaged by fire at Hamburg.
"	.. July 21 ..	Manchester—New Furnishing Warehouse opened.
"	.. Aug. 29 ..	Heckmondwike—Currying Department commenced.
"	.. Nov. 2 ..	London Branch—New Warehouse opened.
"	.. " 2 ..	Manufacture of Cocoa and Chocolate commenced.
1888	.. July 7 ..	S.S. "Equity," Launch of.
"	.. Sept. 8 ..	S.S. "Equity," Trial trip.
"	.. Sept. 27 ..	S.S. "Cambrian" sold.
"	.. Oct. 14 ..	Fire—Newcastle Branch.
1889	.. Feb. 18 ..	Enderby Extension opened.
"	.. Nov. 11 ..	Longton Depôt—New Premises opened.
1890	.. Mar. 10 ..	S.S. "Liberty," Trial trip.
"	.. May 16 ..	Blackburn Saleroom opened.
"	.. June 10 ..	Leeds Clothing Factory commenced.
"	.. Oct. 22 ..	Northampton Saleroom opened.
1891	.. April 18 ..	Dunston Corn Mill opened.
"	.. Oct. 22 ..	Cardiff Saleroom opened.
"	.. Nov. 4 ..	Leicester New Works opened.
"	.. " 4 ..	Aarhus Branch opened.
"	.. Dec. 24 ..	Fire at Crumpsall Works.
1892	.. May 5 ..	Birmingham Saleroom opened.
1893	.. " 8 ..	Broughton Cabinet Factory opened.
1894	.. June 29 ..	Montreal Branch opened.
1895	.. Jan. 23 ..	Printing Department commenced.
"	.. Aug. 5 ..	Göthenburg Branch opened.
"	.. Oct. 2 ..	Irlam Soap Works opened.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN CONNECTION WITH THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY

SINCE ITS COMMENCEMENT—*continued.*

YEAR.	DAY.	EVENTS.
1895	.. Oct. 10 ..	Loss of the S.S. "Unity."
1896	.. April 24 ..	West Hartlepool Refinery purchased.
"	.. June 26 ..	Middleton Preserve Works commenced.
"	.. June 13 ..	Roden Estate purchased.
"	.. July 1 ..	"Wheatsheaf" Record—first publication.
1897	.. Feb. 10 ..	New Northampton Saleroom opened.
"	.. Mar. 1 ..	Manufacture of Candles commenced at Irlam.
"	.. " 1 ..	Broughton Tailoring Factory opened.
"	.. " 22 ..	New Tea Department Buildings opened.
"	.. Aug. 7 ..	Sydney Depôt commenced.
"	.. Sept. 16 ..	Banbury Creamery opened.
1898	.. April 1 ..	Littleboro' Flannel Mill acquired.
"	.. May 9 ..	Tobacco Factory commenced.
"	.. July 11 ..	Longsight Printing Works commenced.
"	.. Oct. 20 ..	Corset Factory commenced.
1900	.. Jan. 19 ..	Herning Slagteri purchased.
"	.. Mar. 24 ..	Rushden Factory commenced.
"	.. June 20 ..	Silvertown Flour Mill opened.
1901	.. April 30 ..	Sydney Tallow Factory purchased.
"	.. July 27 ..	Roden Convalescent Home opened.
"	.. Sept. 3 ..	Tralea Bacon Factory commenced.
"	.. Oct. 9 ..	Rushden New Factory opened.
1902	.. April 9 ..	New Birmingham Saleroom opened.
"	.. " 25 ..	Fire at Newcastle Branch (Drapery Department).
"	.. May 1 ..	Work commenced at Pelaw.
"	.. Sept. 8 ..	Luton Cocoa Works opened.
"	.. Nov. 1 ..	Launch of New Steamer, "Unity," Greenock.
1903	.. July 1 ..	Leicester Hosiery Factory taken over.
"	.. Oct. 24 ..	Launch of New Steamer, "Fraternity."
1904	.. Feb. 20 ..	Marden Fruit Farm purchased.
"	.. April 18 ..	New Drapery Buildings, Manchester, opened.
"	.. June 20 ..	Brislington Butter Factory commenced.
"	.. July 1 ..	Huddersfield Brush Factory taken over.
1905	.. Feb. 15 ..	Bury Weaving Shed commenced.
"	.. Feb. 13 ..	Starch Manufacture commenced at Irlam.
"	.. " 27 ..	Lard " " "
"	.. July 3 ..	Desborough Corset Factory commenced.
"	.. Oct. 26 ..	Launch of "New Pioneer."
1906	.. Jan. 1 ..	Rochdale Flour Mill taken over.
"	.. Mar. 31 ..	Oldham Star Flour Mill taken over.
"	.. April 28 ..	Sun Flour Mill taken over.
"	.. May 16 ..	Bristol New Depôt opened.

LIST OF TELEGRAPHIC ADDRESSES.

BATLEY WOOLLEN MILL: "WHOLESALE, BATLEY."
 BLACKBURN SALEROOM: "WHOLESALE, BLACKBURN."
 BRISTOL DEPÔT: "WHOLESALE, BRISTOL."
 BURY WEAVING SHED: "WHOLESALE, BURY."
 CARDIFF SALEROOM: "WHOLESALE, CARDIFF."
 CENTRAL, MANCHESTER: "WHOLESALE, MANCHESTER."
 CRUMPSALL WORKS: "BISCUIT, MANCHESTER."
 DESBORO' CORSET FACTORY: "WHOLESALE, DESBORO'."
 DUNSTON-ON-TYNE CORN MILL: "WHOLESALE, GATESHEAD."
 GOOLE DEPÔT: "WHOLESALE, GOOLE."
 HARTLEPOOL LARD REFINERY: "WHOLESALE, WEST HARTLEPOOL."
 HECKMONDWIKE SHOE WORKS: "WHOLESALE, HECKMONDWIKE."
 HUDDERSFIELD SALEROOM: "WHOLESALE, HUDDERSFIELD."
 IRLAM SOAP WORKS: "WHOLESALE, CADISHEAD."
 LEEDS READY-MADES AND BRUSH FACTORY: "SOCIETY, LEEDS."
 LEEDS SALE AND SAMPLE ROOMS: "WHOLESALE, LEEDS."
 LEICESTER HOSIERY FACTORY: "SYMERGON, LEICESTER."
 LEICESTER SHOE WORKS: "WHOLESALE, LEICESTER."
 LITTLEBOROUGH FLANNEL MILLS: "WHOLESALE, LITTLEBOROUGH."
 LIVERPOOL OFFICE AND WAREHOUSE: "WHOLESALE, LIVERPOOL."
 LONDON BRANCH: "WHOLESALE, LONDON."
 LONGSIGHT PRINTING WORKS: "TYPOGRAPHY, MANCHESTER."
 LONGTON CROCKERY DEPÔT: "WHOLESALE, LONGTON (STAFF)."
 LUTON COCOA WORKS: "WHOLESALE, LUTON."
 MANCHESTER SUN MILL: "SUNLIKE, MANCHESTER."
 MARDEN FRUIT FARM: "WHOLESALE, MARDEN, HEREFORD."
 MIDDLETON PRESERVE WORKS: "WHOLESALE, MIDDLETON
 JUNCTION."
 NEWCASTLE BRANCH: "WHOLESALE, NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE."
 NEWCASTLE BRANCH, PELAW: "WHOLESALE, BILL-QUAY."
 NEWCASTLE BRANCH, GREENGROCERY (DARN CROOK): "LOYALTY,
 NEWCASTLE."
 NORTHAMPTON SALEROOM: "WHOLESALE, NORTHAMPTON."
 NOTTINGHAM SALEROOM: "WHOLESALE, NOTTINGHAM."
 OLDHAM STAR MILL: "STAR, OLDHAM."
 ROCHDALE CORN MILL: "WHOLESALE, ROCHDALE."
 RODEN ESTATE: "WHOLESALE, RODEN."
 RUSHDEN BOOT WORKS: "WHOLESALE, RUSHDEN."
 SILVERTOWN FLOUR MILL: "CO-OPERATIF, LONDON."
 SILVERTOWN PRODUCTIVE: "PRODUCTIVO, LONDON."
 TEA DEPARTMENT: "LOOMIGER, LONDON."
 TOBACCO FACTORY: "TOBACCO, MANCHESTER."

TELEPHONIC COMMUNICATION.

Our Premises in the following towns are directly connected with the Local Telephone System:—

	No.
MANCHESTER—GENERAL OFFICES.....	
" DRAPERY DEPARTMENT	
" BOOT AND SHOE DEPARTMENT	
" FURNISHING DEPARTMENT	
CRUMPSALL—SUB TO MANCHESTER GENERAL OFFICES.....	6621
LONGSIGHT—" " " " " "	
TOBACCO—" " " " " "	
BROUGHTON—CABINET WORKS " " " "	
NEWCASTLE—WATERLOO STREET " "	*284
" WEST BLANDFORD STREET	1787
" " " " " "	1260
" " " " " "	1989
" " " " " "	2506
" " " " " "	2507
" " " " " "	498
" SADDLERY DEPARTMENT (West Blandford Street)..	2116
" GREENGROCERY DEPARTMENT (Darn Crook)	1524
" QUAYSIDE WAREHOUSE564 and	2670
" PELAW WORKS Gateshead	121
" " " " " "	2806
" DUNSTON EXTENSIONS (Mr. Fletcher, Engineer)	
" Gateshead	28
" HIDES AND SKINS (St. Andrew's Street)	2907
" TRAFALGAR STATION	2423
LONDON—GENERAL OFFICE	Avenue 2591
" GROCERY SALEROOM	London Wall 3258 and 3259
" DRAPERY	Avenue 5571
" GROVE STREET	Central *4671
" TEA DEPARTMENT	Avenue 5570
" " " " " "	" 3003
" FURNISHING AND BOOT DEPARTMENT	" 2592
" BUILDING AND ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT	1049
" CARTAGE	907
BATLEY	101
BRISTOL—OFFICE	1913
" SALEROOM	1914
" DRAPERY DEPARTMENT	1915
" FURNISHING, BOOTS, AND WOOLLENS	1916
BRISLINGTON	1643
BURY	179
CARDIFF	*563
DUNSTON	1261
" " " " " "	*2
GARSTON	6
GOOLE	2
HUDDERSFIELD	310
IRLAM	5
LEEDS READY-MADES AND BRUSH, HOLBECK	1648
" SALEROOM	2098
LEICESTER—WHEATSHEAF WORKS235 and 1132
" HOSIERY	345
LIVERPOOL—VICTORIA STREET397 and 5865
" REGENT ROAD	*5861
LONGTON	16
LUTON	113
MANCHESTER SUN MILL	Trafford Park 27
MIDDLETON—PRESERVE WORKS (Failsworth)	33
NORTHAMPTON SALEROOM	206
NOTTINGHAM	2106
OLDHAM STAR MILL	171
ROCHDALE CORN MILL	56
RUSHDEN	10
SILVERTOWN FLOUR MILL—EASTERN	602
" PRODUCTIVE—EASTERN	924
WEST HARTLEPOOL REFINERY	286

* Post Office System. All others National Telephone Company.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

PAST MEMBERS OF GENERAL COMMITTEE.

Name.	Address.	Elected.	Retired.
*A. Greenwood	Rochdale	1864 March....	1874 August.
†Councillor Smithies ..	Rochdale	1864 March....	1869 May.
§James Dyson	Manchester	1864 March....	1867 May.
Edward Hooson	Manchester	1866 May	1869 Dec.
John Hilton	Middleton	1864 March....	1868 Nov.
		1865 Nov.	1874 May.
*James Crabtree	Heckmondwike ..	1885 Dec.	1886 March.
		1886 June	1889 Dec.
Joseph Thomasson....	Oldham	1866 May	1869 Nov.
Charles Howarth	Heywood	1864 March	1866 October.
		1864 March	1865 Nov.
J. Neild	Mossley	1867 Nov.	1868 Nov.
Thomas Cheetham....	Rochdale	1864 March	1865 Nov.
		1865 Nov.	1866 Feb.
W. Nuttall	Oldham	1876 June	1877 Dec.
§E. Longfield	Manchester	1867 May	1867 Nov.
		1868 Feb.	1868 May.
†J. M. Percival	Manchester	1870 Feb.	1872 August.
		1876 March	1882 June.
Isaiah Lee	Oldham	1867 Nov.	1868 Nov.
§D. Baxter.....	Manchester	1868 May	1871 May.
J. Swindells.....	Hyde	1868 Nov.	1869 Nov.
T. Sutcliffe	Todmorden	1868 Nov.	1869 Nov.
†James C. Fox	Manchester	1868 Nov.	1871 May.
W. Marcroft.....	Oldham	1869 May	1871 May.
Thomas Pearson.....	Eccles	1869 Nov.	1871 Nov.
R. Holgate	Over Darwen	1869 Nov.	1870 Nov.
A. Mitchell	Rochdale	1870 August ..	1870 Nov.
W. Moore.....	Batley Carr	1870 Nov.	1871 August.
		1871 May	1874 Dec.
†Titus Hall	Bradford	1877 June	1885 Dec

PAST MEMBERS OF GENERAL COMMITTEE—*continued.*

Name.	Address.	Elected.	Retired.
B. Hague	Barnsley	1871 May	1873 May.
Thomas Shorrocks	Over Darwen	1874 Dec.	1884 Sept.
† R. Allen	Oldham	1871 May	1871 Nov.
Job Whiteley	Halifax	1871 August ..	1877 April.
† Thomas Hayes	Failsworth	1871 August ..	1872 Feb.
Jonathan Fishwick ...	Bolton	1873 Feb.	1874 Feb.
J. Thorpe	Halifax	1871 Nov.	1873 August.
† W. Johnson	Bolton	1871 Nov.	1872 Feb.
§ H. Whiley	Manchester	1872 Feb.	1873 Feb.
J. Butcher	Banbury	1872 Feb.	1876 June.
H. Atkinson	Blaydon-on-Tyne ..	1877 June	1885 March.
J. F. Brearley	Oldham	1872 August ..	1874 Feb.
Robert Cooper	Accrington	1874 May	1876 March.
H. Jackson	Halifax	1873 May	1873 August.
J. Pickersgill	Batley Carr	1873 August ..	1874 Dec.
W. Barnett	Macclesfield	1874 Feb.	1874 Dec.
John Stansfield	Heckmondwike	1874 Dec.	1876 June.
S. Lever	Bacup	1874 Dec.	1876 June.
F. R. Stephenson	Halifax	1874 Dec.	1876 June.
R. Whittle	Crewe	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
† Thos. Swann	Masborough	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
Joseph Mc.Nab	Hyde	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
Alfred North	Batley	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
James Hilton	Oldham	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
Samuel Taylor	Bolton	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
William P. Hemm	Nottingham	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
H. C. Pingstone	Manchester	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
* § J. T. W. Mitchell	Rochdale	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
E. Hibbert	Failsworth	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
James Lownds	Ashton-under-Lyne..	1874 Dec.	1877 March.
Amos Scotton	Derby	1874 Dec.	1877 March.

* Held Office as President.

† Held Office as Secretary and Treasurer.

‡ Held Office as Secretary.

§ Held Office as Treasurer.

* PAST MEMBERS OF NEWCASTLE BRANCH COMMITTEE.

Name.	Address.	Elected.	Retired.
Ephraim Gilchrist	Wallsend	1873 Oct.	1874 Jan.
George Dover	Chester-le-Street ...	1874 Dec.	1877 Sept.
Humphrey Atkinson ..	Blaydon-on-Tyne ..	1874 Dec.	1879 May.
† James Patterson	West Cramlington ..	1874 Dec.	1877 Sept.
John Steel	Newcastle-on-Tyne..	1874 Dec.	1876 Sept.
William Green	Durham	1874 Dec.	1891 Sept.
Thomas Pinkney	Newbottle	1874 Dec.	1875 March.
† John Thirlaway	Gateshead	1876 Dec.	1892 May.
William Robinson	Shotley Bridge	1877 Sept.	1884 June.
William J. Howat	Newcastle-on-Tyne..	1877 Dec.	1883 Dec.
J. Atkinson	Wallsend	1883 Dec.	1890 May.
George Fryer	Cramlington	1883 Dec.	1887 Dec.
Matthew Bates	Newcastle-on-Tyne..	1884 June	1893 June.
Richard Thomson	Sunderland	1874 Dec.	1893 Sept.
George Scott	Newbottle	1879 May	1893 Dec.
George Binney	Durham	1891 Dec.	1905 May.
Robert Irving	Carlisle	1892 June	1904 August.
William Stoker	Seaton Delaval	1893 Sept.	1902 July.
Thomas Rule	Gateshead	1893 June	1903 June.

* PAST MEMBERS OF LONDON BRANCH COMMITTEE.

Name.	Address.	Elected.	Retired.
J. Durrant	Arundel	1874 Dec.	1875 Dec.
John Green	Woolwich	1874 Dec.	1876 Dec.
† Thomas Fowe	Buckfastleigh	1874 Dec.	1878 March.
T. E. Webb	Battersea	1874 Dec.	1896 Dec.
J. Clay	Gloucester	1874 Dec.	1901 Oct.
† William Strawn	Sheerness	1875 Dec.	1882 March.
Frederick Lamb	Banbury	1876 Dec.	1888 Dec.
F. A. Williams	Reading	1882 June	1886 Sept.
J. J. B. Beach	Colchester	1886 Dec.	1888 Dec.
R. H. Tutt	Hastings	1897 March	1904 Feb.
G. Sutherland	Woolwich	1883 Dec.	1904 Oct.

* Newcastle and London Branch Committees constituted December, 1874.

† Held Office as Secretary.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

MEMBERS OF GENERAL, AND NEWCASTLE
AND LONDON BRANCH COMMITTEES WHO HAVE DIED
DURING TIME OF OFFICE.

NAME.	ADDRESS.	DATE OF DEATH.
GENERAL.		
Edward Hooson	Manchester	December 11th, 1869.
Robert Allen.....	Oldham.....	April 2nd, 1877.
Richard Whittle	Crewe.....	March 6th, 1886.
Samuel Lever	Bacup	May 18th, 1888.
William P. Hemm	Nottingham.....	August 21st, 1889.
James Hilton	Oldham.....	January 18th, 1890.
Samuel Taylor.....	Bolton	December 15th, 1891.
J. T. W. Mitchell.....	Rochdale	March 16th, 1895.
E. Hibbert	Failsworth	June 25th, 1895.
James Lownds.....	Ashton-un-Lyne ..	July 27th, 1895.
Thos. Swann.....	Masboro'	February 15th, 1899.
Amos Scotton	Derby.....	October 2nd, 1904.
Alfred North	Batley	August 14th, 1905.
NEWCASTLE.		
J. Atkinson	Wallsend	May 25th, 1890.
William Green.....	Durham	September 9th, 1891.
John Thirlaway	Gateshead.....	May 1st, 1892.
William Stoker	Seaton Delaval ..	July 4th, 1902.
Robert Irving	Carlisle	August 22nd, 1904.
George Binney.....	Durham	May 5th, 1905.
LONDON.		
J. J. B. Beach	Colchester.....	December 21st, 1888.
T. E. Webb	Battersea	December 2nd, 1896.
J. Clay	Gloucester	October 25th, 1901.
R. H. Tutt	Hastings	February 26th, 1904.
G. Sutherland	Woolwich	October 17th, 1904.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

PAST AUDITORS.

Name.	Address.	Elected.	Retired.
D. Baxter.....	Manchester	1864 March	1868 May.
J. Hankinson	Preston.....	1864 May	1865 May.
E. Longfield	Manchester	1865 May	1867 May.
James White	Manchester	1867 May	1881 Sept.
W. Nuttall	Oldham	1868 May	1868 Nov.
		1873 Nov.....	1874 May.
A. Howard	Rochdale	1868 Nov.....	1870 May.
R. Taylor	Oldham	1870 May	1873 May.
		1873 Nov.....	1875 Feb.
J. C. Fox	Manchester	1872 May	1876 Sept.
		1876 Dec.	1877 Sept.
H. C. Pingstone	Manchester	1872 May	1872 Nov.
W. Barnett	Macclesfield.....	1872 Nov.....	1873 Nov.
W. Grimshaw	Eccles	1873 May	1874 May.
J. Leach	Rochdale	1874 May	1878 June.
J. Odgers	Manchester	1874 May	1874 Sept.
J. M. Percival	Manchester	1875 March	1876 March.
W. Appleby	Manchester	1876 March	1888 Sept.
J. D. Kershaw	Oldham	1876 Oct.	1885 Sept.
W. Nuttall	Eccles	1879 March	1879 June.
T. Whitworth	Rochdale	1881 Dec.	1885 June.
James Kershaw	Rochdale	1878 June.....	1878 Sept.
Isaac Haigh.....	Barnsley	1888 August....	1903 Feb.



STATISTICS

SHOWING THE
PROGRESS OF

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
SOCIETY LIMITED.

MARCH, 1864, TO DECEMBER, 1905.

Comparison with corresponding period previous year.		DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES.			Net Profit.	Average Dividend paid per £.	ADDITIONS TO TRADE DEPT.		Dates Departments and Branches were commenced.
Decrease.	Rate.	Amount.	Rate on Sales				Reserve Fund.	Insurance Fund.	
		£	d.	s.	d.	£	d.	£	£
..	..	347	13	13	4½	267	1½
..	..	906	13	15	0	1,858	3½
54,735	45½	1,615	24	18	4½	2,310	3	234	..
12,688	51½	3,135	24	18	10½	4,411	3	450	..
24,063	43	3,338	1½	16	2½	4,862	2½	416	..
94,977	23	4,644	2½	18	3½	4,248	1½	542	..
59,379	30½	5,583	1½	16	5½	7,626	2½	1,620	..
86,559	12½	6,853	2	18	0½	7,867	2½	1,020	..
94,368	51½	12,811	2½	22	2½	11,116	2½	1,243	..
83,818	41½	21,147	3	25	10	14,233	2	922	..
27,579	20	28,436	3½	28	11½	20,684	2	4,461	..
82,566	14½	31,555	3½	28	0½	26,750	2½	4,826	..
101,095	17½	42,436	3½	31	5½	36,979	2½	4,925	..
88,897	7½	43,169	3½	30	6½	29,189	2	579	..
21,427*	4½*	43,093	3½	31	10½	34,959	2½	5,970	..
22,774	0½	41,309	3½	31	2½	42,764	2½	8,060	..
11,282	22½	47,153	3½	28	2½	42,090	2½	10,651	..
34,414	7	51,306	3½	28	8½	46,850	2½	7,672	..
64,143	12½	57,340	3½	28	4½	49,658	2½	3,416	..
108,551	12½	66,057	3½	29	0½	47,885	2½	3,176	..
41,042	0½	70,343	3½	30	1	54,491	2½	6,431	..
89,946	4½	74,305	3½	31	0	77,630	3½	4,454	13,259
90,028	8½	81,653	3½	31	3½	83,328	3½	7,077	15,469
90,056	9½	93,979	3½	32	10½	65,141	2½	9,408	2,778
86,839	8½	105,027	4	33	10½	82,490	2½	8,684	6,614
109,638	11½	117,849	4	33	6½	101,984	3½	2,249	16,658
82,750	7½	126,879	4	34	1½	126,979	3½	..	20,982
37,357	18	143,151	3½	32	7½	135,008	3½	1,145	14,702
34,474	6	165,787	4½	35	7½	98,532	2½	6,511	1,000
25,263	2½	179,910	4½	37	9½	84,156	2½	117,215	7,659
82,229*	0½*	186,058	4½	39	4½	126,192	2½	26,092	..
16,865	5½	199,512	4½	39	4½	192,766	3½	27,424	10,000
64,496	11½	218,393	4½	39	3½	177,419	3½	18,045	10,000
105,087	7½	246,477	4½	41	4½	135,561	2½	8,338	..
54,605	5½	255,032	4½	40	6½	231,256	3½	31,618	5,000
37,627	13	278,882	4½	39	2½	286,250	4	63,843	..
31,514	12½	314,410	4½	39	2½	289,141	4	48,210	..
48,150	8½	335,183	4½	37	11½	288,321	4	27,210	..
14,522	5½	345,855	4½	37	7½	336,369	4	51,697	..
95,583	5	354,316	4½	36	7½	297,304	4	4,759	..
76,054	2½	377,606	4½	38	1½	332,374	4	37,774	..
76,273	4½	396,767	4½	38	2½	304,568	4	13,591	..
..	..	5,179,557	4½	36	1½	4,343,866	2½	149,346	124,121

* Decrease. † From. ‡ From Disposal of Profit Account.

RESERVE FUND

Dr. TRADE DEPARTMENT FROM

Deductions from Reserve Fund—		£
Subscriptions and Donations to Charitable and other Objects		57,204
Investments Written off: Bank Department.....		18,259
" " Trade Department		10,660
Insurance Fund		6,000
Land and Buildings Account—Depreciation, Special		1,148
Fixtures " " "		852
Celebration Dinner: Opening Warehouse, Balloon Street		56
Newcastle Formation Expenses		16
21st Anniversary Commemoration Expenses, Manchester		2,017
Sprinklers Account—Amount written off to date		51,845
		<hr/>
		148,057
RESERVE FUND, December 23rd, 1905 :—		
Investments :—Manchester Ship Canal Company, 2,000		
Ordinary Shares of £10 each	£20,000	
" Gilsland Convalescent Home, 7,500 Shares		
of £1 each	7,500	
" British Cotton Growing Association, 2,000		
Shares of £1 each	2,000	
" North-Western Co-operative Convalescent		
Homes Association	5,000	
		<hr/>
		34,500
Balance, as per Balance Sheet, December 23rd, 1905	259,181	
Add—Per Disposal of Profit Account, December 23rd, 1905	6,564	
		<hr/>
		265,745
		<hr/>
		£448,302

ACCOUNT.

COMMENCEMENT OF SOCIETY. Cr.

Additions to Reserve Fund—		£
From Disposal of Profit Account, as per page 27—Net		430,346
Balance—Sale of Properties:—		
Strawberry Estate, Newcastle	£1,953	
Land, Liverpool	713	
Rosedale	11	
South Shields	96	
Newhall	418	
Durham	376	
Gorton	10,923	
	————	14,490
Balance—Sale of Shares—New Telephone Company		44
„ Share Investment—Lancashire and Yorkshire Productive Society		60
„ Sale of part Shares—Co-operative Printing Society		63
„ Share Investment—Leicester Hosiery Society		75
Dividend on Debts, previously written off		780
Balances, Shares, Loans, &c., Accounts		215
Bonus to Employés: Differences between Amounts Provided and actually Paid		311
Dividend on Sales to Employés		403
Interest on Manchester Ship Canal Shares		1,515
		————
		£448,302

MANCHESTER GROCERY AND PROVISION TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
1½ Years,	January, 1876..	2,586,691	26,417	0 2½	31,028	0 2½	56,487
5 "	December, 1880..	8,740,658	87,603	0 2½	140,043	0 3½	70,091
5 "	" 1885..	11,723,202	127,892	0 2½	157,209	0 3½	92,790
5 "	" 1890..	15,511,593	180,023	0 2½	264,131	0 4	123,432
5 "	" 1895..	21,956,461	279,262	0 3	339,816	0 3½	159,990
5 "	" 1900..	28,186,928	374,568	0 3½	500,911	0 4½	158,597
Year (53 wks)	" 1901..	7,432,684	91,256	0 2½	119,322	0 3½	211,041
"	" 1902..	7,937,194	93,923	0 2½	155,215	0 4½	199,421
"	" 1903..	8,369,553	95,061	0 2½	151,296	0 4½	174,454
"	" 1904..	8,751,800	101,261	0 2½	185,278	0 5	225,790
"	" 1905..	9,137,793	108,188	0 2½	163,587	0 4½	237,874
Half Year, June,	1905..	4,700,211	56,238	0 2½	92,437	0 4½	181,709
32½ Years' Total....		135,034,768	1,621,692	0 2½	2,300,273	0 4	..

MANCHESTER DRAPERY TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
2½ Years,	January, 1876..	211,351	11,484	1 1	2,165	0 2½	72,408
5 "	December, 1880..	672,992	43,116	1 3½	* 941	0 0½	44,105
5 "	" 1885..	771,333	42,913	1 1½	20,277	0 6½	44,948
5 "	" 1890..	1,205,935	60,656	1 0	25,278	0 5½	84,739
5 "	" 1895..	1,920,447	100,386	1 0½	48,223	0 6	108,337
5 "	" 1900..	2,568,623	141,497	1 1½	88,133	0 8½	153,641
Year (53 wks)	" 1901..	606,630	35,289	1 1½	17,212	0 6½	136,005
"	" 1902..	652,906	35,777	1 1½	22,048	0 8	136,143
"	" 1903..	655,502	36,613	1 1½	17,673	0 6½	120,680
"	" 1904..	678,986	43,450	1 3½	14,411	0 5	118,856
"	" 1905..	721,769	45,439	1 3	23,105	0 7½	107,837
Half Year, June,	1906..	384,517	23,457	1 2½	13,028	0 8½	125,779
32½ Years' Total....		11,051,591	620,077	1 1½	29,612
Less Depreciation, October, 1877.....					4,757	..	
Leaves Net Profit					285,855	0 6½	

* Loss.

NOTE.—To December, 1883, the figures include Woollens and Ready-Mades Department.

MANCHESTER WOOLLENS AND READY-MADES TRADE.

Since publishing a separate Account in Balance Sheet.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.	
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	(a)	(b)
2 Years, December, 1885		£ 41,578	£ 2,470	s. d. 1 2½	£ 745	s. d. 0 4½	£ 5,242	£ ..
5 " " 1890		120,546	8,331	1 4½	*1,196	0 2½	11,463	..
5 " " 1895		255,315	15,905	1 2½	*3,232	0 3	15,608	..
5 " " 1900		622,486	35,706	1 1½	13,805	0 5½	35,978	..
Year (53 wks) " 1901		157,387	9,795	1 2½	4,106	0 6½	49,655	..
" " 1902		175,407	9,960	1 1½	3,106	0 4½	50,737	..
" " 1903		180,552	10,229	1 1½	4,067	0 5½	53,445	..
" " 1904		173,225	10,740	1 2½	2,963	0 3½	45,620	5,396
" " 1905		188,014	11,125	1 2½	2,704	0 3½	51,262	16,779
Half Year, June, 1906		118,907	6,627	1 1½	2,122	0 4½	45,256	16,437
22½ Years' Total...		2,033,417	120,888	1 2½	28,590	0 3½

* Loss. (a) Woollens and Ready-mades and Outfitting. (b) Linings and Dyed Goods.

NOTE.—To June, 1895, inclusive, the Results and Stocks include Broughton Clothing Factory.

MANCHESTER BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
2½ Years, January, 1876 ..		£ 96,648	£ 2,659	s. d. 0 6½	£ 1,524	s. d. 0 3½	£ 7,711
5 " December, 1880 ..		292,347	10,500	0 8½	3,646	0 2½	11,484
5 " " 1885 ..		439,988	14,703	0 8	6,330	0 3½	16,074
5 " " 1890 ..		738,251	24,180	0 7½	17,519	0 5½	32,095
5 " " 1895 ..		1,175,301	48,031	0 9½	18,957	0 3½	56,302
5 " " 1900 ..		1,493,428	59,448	0 9½	30,468	0 4½	62,178
Year (53 wks) " 1901 ..		353,247	13,486	0 9½	6,218	0 4½	61,050
" " 1902 ..		366,531	13,761	0 9	5,973	0 3½	67,120
" " 1903 ..		375,230	13,771	0 8½	7,345	0 4½	63,573
" " 1904 ..		375,987	14,713	0 9½	5,989	0 3½	60,664
" " 1905 ..		388,600	15,252	0 9½	5,637	0 3½	63,114
Half Year, June, 1906 ..		232,367	7,587	0 7½	5,231	0 6½	65,007
32½ Years' Total.....		6,327,925	238,091	0 9	115,537	0 4½	..

MANCHESTER FURNISHING TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end. (a)
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
4½ Years, December, 1880...		81,386	4,999	1 2½	617	0 1½	4,307
5 " " 1885...		184,218	9,354	1 0½	2,379	0 3	5,817
5 " " 1890...		439,580	21,250	0 11½	6,408	0 3½	12,930
5 " " 1895...		781,803	41,130	1 0½	6,587	0 2	19,574
5 " " 1900...		1,317,554	65,372	0 11½	23,638	0 4½	27,817
Year (53 wks) " 1901...		315,596	15,577	0 11½	5,248	0 3½	28,429
" " 1902...		325,756	15,586	0 11½	4,569	0 3½	27,092
" " 1903...		325,234	15,345	0 11½	4,947	0 3½	25,910
" " 1904...		327,943	16,359	0 11½	3,501	0 2½	27,930
" " 1905...		344,907	17,518	1 0½	4,035	0 2½	28,388
Half Year, June, 1906...		179,137	8,953	0 11½	2,655	0 3½	27,440
30 Years' Total		4,623,114	231,943	1 0	64,584	0 3½	..

NOTE.—From March, 1893, to June, 1895, inclusive, the Results and Stocks include Broughton Cabinet Works.

(a) Excludes Longton Stock. MEMO.—In Balance Sheet Longton Stocks included with Manchester Furnishing Stocks.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH GROCERY AND PROVISION TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
5 Years, December, 1880...		2,582,396	38,033	0 3½	23,708	0 2½	44,398
5 " " 1885...		4,237,286	53,274	0 3	55,386	0 3½	53,546
5 " " 1890...		5,217,881	70,760	0 3½	93,880	0 4½	42,136
5 " " 1895...		7,761,473	104,141	0 3½	155,711	0 4½	46,719
5 " " 1900...		10,795,105	169,596	0 3½	185,269	0 4	87,591
Year (53 wks) " 1901...		2,922,146	39,791	0 3½	41,414	0 3½	85,941
" " 1902...		2,940,097	39,248	0 3½	39,124	0 3½	89,015
" " 1903...		3,001,433	39,016	0 3	33,792	0 2½	85,244
" " 1904...		2,979,506	44,036	0 3½	35,646	0 2½	89,033
" " 1905...		3,090,087	48,029	0 3½	32,062	0 2½	74,783
Half Year, June, 1906...		1,537,062	24,159	0 3½	22,194	0 3½	81,192
30½ Years' Total		47,064,472	670,083	0 3½	718,186	0 3½	..

NEWCASTLE BRANCH DRAPERY TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
5 Years, December, 1880..		234,269	10,745	0 11	5,484	0 5½	16,171
5 " " 1885..		513,938	17,599	0 8½	21,903	0 10½	24,084
5 " " 1890..		876,923	30,548	0 8½	37,968	0 10½	33,216
5 " " 1895..		1,351,804	44,684	0 7½	57,256	0 10½	48,361
5 " " 1900..		1,864,292	71,047	0 9½	84,856	0 10½	63,704
Year (53 wks) " 1901..		469,069	22,453	0 11½	17,583	0 8½	61,962
" " " 1902..		445,131	23,811	1 0½	16,200	0 8½	54,589
" " " 1903..		451,554	24,682	1 1	8,206	0 4½	61,658
" " " 1904..		436,545	24,578	1 1½	11,523	0 6½	54,539
" " " 1905..		457,379	26,604	1 1½	10,683	0 5½	59,939
Half Year, June, 1906..		243,690	14,790	1 2½	3,305	0 3½	61,671
30½ Years' Total		7,344,594	311,541	0 10½	274,967	0 8½	..

NOTE.—To June, 1898, the figures include Woollens and Ready-Mades Department.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH WOOLLENS AND READY-MADES TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
2½ Years, December, 1900..		339,631	10,361	0 7½	16,984	1 0	35,627
Year (53 wks) " 1901..		157,920	6,233	0 9½	5,463	0 8½	38,306
" " " 1902..		138,558	6,154	0 10½	3,467	0 6	39,280
" " " 1903..		143,981	6,803	0 11½	3,209	0 5½	36,759
" " " 1904..		136,632	6,553	0 11½	5,059	0 8½	31,157
" " " 1905..		142,566	6,597	0 11	7,210	1 0½	32,054
Half Year, June, 1906..		86,451	3,686	0 10½	4,679	1 0½	29,979
8 Years' Total		1,145,739	46,387	0 9½	46,071	0 9½	..

NEWCASTLE BRANCH BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
5 Years, December, 1880..		144,855	4,500	0 7½	2,412	0 4	5,971
5 " " 1885..		327,150	9,980	0 7½	8,276	0 6	11,319
5 " " 1890..		493,126	18,876	0 9½	7,874	0 3½	11,870
5 " " 1895..		648,837	22,443	0 8½	14,020	0 5½	20,680
5 " " 1900..		893,524	31,452	0 8½	21,199	0 5½	26,770
Year (53 wks) " 1901..		239,836	9,550	0 9½	3,957	0 3½	26,705
" " " 1902..		228,670	9,400	0 9½	3,111	0 3½	29,409
" " " 1903..		237,118	9,496	0 9½	3,804	0 3½	30,781
" " " 1904..		234,985	9,604	0 9½	4,109	0 4½	25,737
" " " 1905..		238,972	9,416	0 9½	3,101	0 3	29,423
Half Year, June, 1906..		123,889	4,775	0 9½	3,171	0 6½	24,876
30½ Years' Total		3,810,962	139,492	0 8½	75,034	0 4½	..

NOTE.—To December, 1888, the figures include Furnishing Department.

NEWCASTLE BRANCH FURNISHING TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
2 Years, December, 1890..		138,487	6,287	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,387	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	10,474
5 " " 1895..		485,907	26,707	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,233	0 3	16,120
5 " " 1900..		963,098	47,272	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	24,066	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	29,796
Year (53 wks) ,, 1901..		309,711	14,749	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,102	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	29,925
" " 1902..		263,998	15,054	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,167	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	34,501
" " 1903..		246,988	14,916	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	* 47	..	37,408
" " 1904..		224,520	14,918	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,171	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	28,918
" " 1905..		240,271	16,586	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,245	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	28,555
Half Year, June, 1906..		128,155	9,288	1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,523	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	30,194
17 $\frac{1}{2}$ Years' Total		3,001,135	165,777	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	45,847	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$..

* Loss.

LONDON BRANCH GROCERY AND PROVISION TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
			Amount.	Rate per £.	Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Years, January, 1876 ..		203,137	3,907	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,151	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,219
5 " December, 1880 ..		1,119,233	17,326	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	17,689	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	20,789
5 " " 1885 ..		1,746,107	29,470	0 4	24,718	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	24,256
5 " " 1890 ..		3,661,913	66,023	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	51,270	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	57,347
5 " " 1895 ..		6,125,158	125,071	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	74,567	0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	45,828
5 " " 1900 ..		8,924,536	188,854	0 5	137,122	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	109,468
Year (53 wks) ,, 1901 ..		2,520,986	45,021	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	33,189	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	111,945
" " 1902 ..		2,777,688	47,846	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	47,262	0 4	120,062
" " 1903 ..		3,052,106	50,008	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	43,803	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	133,209
" " 1904 ..		3,332,458	51,944	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	50,213	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	151,677
" " 1905 ..		3,542,656	52,951	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	46,909	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	129,171
Half Year, June, 1906 ..		1,716,684	29,368	0 4	24,745	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	101,377
32 $\frac{1}{2}$ Years' Total		38,722,662	707,789	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	553,637	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$..

LONDON BRANCH BOOT & SHOE TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.			NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
			Amo'nt.	Rate per £.		Amo'nt.	Rate per £.	Amo'nt.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
3½ Years, December, 1890.		105,438	5,640	1 0¾		152	0 0½	6,051
5 " " 1895.		242,974	15,350	1 3¾		1,013	0 1	11,182
5 " " 1900.		376,424	24,274	1 3¾		2,064	0 1½	20,287
Year (53 wks) " 1901.		104,047	5,988	1 1¾		968	0 2¾	16,260
" " 1902.		109,362	6,591	1 2¾		451	0 0¾	20,248
" " 1903.		125,746	7,215	1 1¾		1,646	0 3¾	24,007
" " 1904.		126,973	7,562	1 2¾		1,046	0 1¾	24,464
" " 1905.		130,231	7,620	1 2		808	0 1¾	24,120
Half Year, June, 1906.		66,364	4,430	1 4		525	0 1¾	31,121
18½ Years' Total....		1,387,559	84,670	1 2¾		7,660	..	1,013
Less Loss						1,013	..			
Leaves Net Profit						6,647	0 1¾			

LONDON BRANCH FURNISHING TRADE.

Since keeping a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.			NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
			Amo'nt.	Rate per £.		Amo'nt.	Rate per £.	Amo'nt.	Rate per £.	
		£	£	s. d.		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
1½ Years, December, 1890.		53,957	4,487	1 7¾		952	0 4½	3,957
5 " " 1895.		208,925	17,814	1 8¾		1,655	0 1½	8,604
5 " " 1900.		370,518	29,067	1 6¾		160	..	12,854
Year (53 wks) " 1901.		96,596	7,108	1 5¾		1,088	0 2¾	13,181
" " 1902.		100,766	7,887	1 6¾		80	0 0¾	12,910
" " 1903.		102,255	8,303	1 7¾		1,031	0 2¾	14,441
" " 1904.		99,851	8,348	1 8		860	0 2	13,660
" " 1905.		90,580	8,425	1 10¼		523	0 1¾	14,136
Half Year, June, 1906.		46,029	4,758	2 0¾		571	0 2¾	17,909
17½ Years' Total....		1,169,477	96,197	1 7¾		3,059	..	3,861
Less Profit.....								3,059
Leaves Net Loss.....								802	0 0¾	..

LONDON BRANCH

Since keeping

PERIOD.	ENDED.	SALES.			EXPENSES.	
		Drapery.	Boots.	Total.	Amount.	Rate per £.
Half Year, December, 1880		£ 1,657	£ 6,500	£ 8,157	£ 312	s. d. 0 9½
5 Years, ..	1885	120,699	89,210	209,909	11,677	1 1½
5 ..	1890	323,400	*45,281	368,681	28,327	1 6½
5 ..	1895	439,003	..	439,003	33,431	1 6½
5 ..	1900 ...	693,385	..	693,385	55,546	1 7½
Year (53 weeks) ..	1901	175,116	..	175,116	14,229	1 7½
..	1902	189,094	..	189,094	15,296	1 7½
..	1903	201,752	..	201,752	16,533	1 7½
..	1904	214,837	..	214,837	17,464	1 7½
..	1905	208,911	..	208,911	16,913	1 7½
Half Year, June, ..	1906	98,942	..	98,942	8,631	1 8½
26 Years' Total		2,666,796	140,991	2,807,787	218,299	1 6½

* Two years only.

NOTE.—The above figures include the following: Boots and Shoes to September, 1887;

LONDON BRANCH WOOLLENS

Since keeping

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Sales.	EXPENSES.	
			Amount.	Rate per £.
2½ Years, December, 1900		£ 96,037	£ 9,128	s. d. 1 10½
Year (53 weeks) ..	1901	50,359	4,660	1 10½
..	1902	59,473	5,620	1 10½
..	1903	62,548	5,826	1 10½
..	1904	64,811	6,074	1 10½
..	1905	62,948	6,107	1 11½
Half Year, June, ..	1906	33,428	3,515	2 1½
8½ Years' Total		429,604	40,930	1 10½

DRAPERY TRADE.

a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £.	
		£	s. d.	£
Half Year, December, 1880		36	0 1	3,805
5 Years, " 1885		1,963	0 2½	11,502
5 " " 1890		*5,789	0 3½	12,607
5 " " 1895		515	0 0½	21,859
5 " " 1900		9,992	0 3½	45,685
Year (53 weeks) " 1901		2,623	0 3½	44,182
" " 1902		2,760	0 3½	47,806
" " 1903		1,946	0 2½	54,873
" " 1904		2,271	0 2½	49,190
" " 1905		1,386	0 1½	44,749
Half Year, June, 1906		*627	0 1½	55,198
26 Years' Total		17,076	0 1½	..

* Loss.

Furnishing to March, 1883; Woollens and Ready-mades to March, 1898.

AND READY-MADES TRADE.

a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate. per £.	
		£	s. d.	£
2½ Years, December, 1900		2,054	0 5½	14,908
Year (53 weeks) " 1901		92	0 0½	15,736
" " 1902		1,428	0 5½	21,416
" " 1903		1,184	0 4½	16,777
" " 1904		1,364	0 5	18,772
" " 1905		833	0 3½	21,602
Half Year, June, 1906		366	0 2½	18,608
8½ Years' Total		7,321	0 4	..

CRUMPSALL BISCUIT AND

Since keeping

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
2½ Years,	January, 1876 ..	29,840	29,394	5,309	707	953	6,969
5 "	December, 1880 ..	87,213	87,003	14,589	2,427	2,298	19,314
5 "	" 1885 ..	106,679	106,959	18,014	3,194	2,122	23,330
5 "	" 1890 ..	177,924	181,173	35,716	6,308	4,022	46,046
5 "	" 1895 ..	421,775	426,035	73,418	10,340	8,048	91,806
5 "	" 1900 ..	464,581	443,116	101,908	13,412	6,020	121,340
Year (53 wks)	" 1901 ..	147,823	146,319	31,817	4,913	2,338	39,068
"	" 1902 ..	160,151	156,625	38,832	3,198	2,298	44,328
"	" 1903 ..	164,902	162,923	39,108	4,163	2,602	45,873
"	" 1904 ..	162,068	163,431	39,491	4,176	2,629	46,296
"	" 1905 ..	164,208	161,831	38,924	4,655	2,926	46,505
Half Year,	June, 1906 ..	83,130	83,535	19,607	2,552	1,594	23,753
32½ Years' Total	2,170,294	2,148,404	456,733	60,050	37,850	554,633

NOTE.—Dry Soap and Preserves transferred to Irlam and

SWEET WORKS TRADE.

a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRODUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Sup- plies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
2½ Years, January, 1876.....		23 14 2½	4 8½	955	0 7½	1,538
5 " December, 1880.....		22 3 11½	4 5½	4,649	1 0½	1,793
5 " " 1885.....		21 16 2½	4 4½	7,987	1 5½	3,534
5 " " 1890.....		25 8 3½	5 0½	1,027	0 1½	12,712
5 " " 1895.....		21 10 11½	4 3½	23,500	1 1½	28,905
5 " " 1900.....		27 7 8	5 5½	24,157	1 0½	14,018
Year (53 wks) " 1901.....		26 14 0½	5 4	14,882	2 0½	18,291
" " 1902.....		28 6 0½	5 7½	9,037	1 1½	16,568
" " 1903.....		28 3 2½	5 7½	11,178	1 4½	17,745
" " 1904.....		28 6 6½	5 7½	11,918	1 5½	15,187
" " 1905.....		28 14 8½	5 8½	10,367	1 3½	14,631
Half Year, June, 1906.....		28 8 3½	5 8½	5,896	1 5	19,619
32½ Years' Total		25 16 3½	5 1½	125,553	1 1½	..

Middleton respectively, September, 1896.

MIDDLETON PRESERVE, PEEL,

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
4½ Years,	December, 1900	608,218	639,903	82,018	12,740	11,254	106,012
Year (53 weeks)	„ 1901	176,651	179,779	22,206	3,404	3,621	29,231
„	„ 1902	233,014	217,312	23,646	3,436	3,560	30,642
„	„ 1903	283,696	301,958	29,474	3,470	3,500	36,444
„	„ 1904	259,082	272,441	29,661	3,589	4,660	37,910
„	„ 1905	261,687	258,357	29,028	3,829	5,166	38,023
Half Year,	June, 1906	141,622	116,030	13,949	2,087	2,138	18,174
10 Years' Total	1,963,920	1,985,780	229,982	32,555	33,899	296,436

IRLAM SOAP, CANDLE, STARCH,

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
20 Weeks,	December, 1895 ..	26,999	32,391	3,597	807	656	5,060
5 Years,	„ 1900 ..	908,258	904,415	104,511	19,765	15,343	139,619
Year (53 wks)	„ 1901 ..	316,608	304,793	32,245	5,098	3,972	41,315
„	„ 1902 ..	331,452	328,747	34,541	5,338	3,980	43,859
„	„ 1903 ..	379,789	380,033	38,575	5,463	4,833	48,871
„	„ 1904 ..	388,236	376,565	42,580	5,521	5,242	53,343
„	„ 1905 ..	458,946	462,463	53,793	8,156	6,786	68,735
Half Year,	June, 1906 ..	268,532	263,852	24,599	4,389	3,677	32,665
10 Years and 11 Months' Total	}	3,078,820	3,053,259	334,441	54,537	44,489	433,467

AND PICKLE WORKS TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRO- DUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
4½ Years,	December, 1900	16 11 4	3 3½	24,328	0 9½	66,044
Year (53 weeks)	„ 1901	16 5 2¼	3 3	6,011	0 8½	72,114
„	„ 1902	14 2 0	2 9½	8,336	0 8½	60,254
„	„ 1903	12 1 4½	2 4½	11,738	0 9½	100,652
„	„ 1904	13 18 3½	2 9½	1,669	0 1½	112,931
„	„ 1905	14 14 4½	2 11½	7,639	0 7	99,938
Half Year,	June, 1906	15 13 3½	3 1½	12,015	1 8½	57,945
10 Years' Total	14 18 6½	2 11½	71,736	0 8½	..

AND LARD WORKS TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end. (a)
		RATE ON PRODUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
20 Weeks, December, 1895		15 12 5½	3 1½	369	0 3½	30,825
5 Years, " 1900		15 8 8½	3 1	40,319	0 10½	74,059
Year (53 wks) " 1901		13 11 1½	2 8½	8,934	0 6½	50,366
" " 1902		13 6 9½	2 8	5,292	0 3½	114,453
" " 1903		12 17 2½	2 6½	16,816	0 10½	125,608
" " 1904		14 3 3¾	2 9½	31,706	1 7½	99,384
" " 1905		14 17 3	2 11½	20,770	0 10½	125,435
Half Year, June, 1906		12 7 7½	2 5½	11,646	0 10½	115,729
10 Years and 11 Months' Total..		14 3 11½	2 10	135,852	0 10½	..

(a) Includes Sydney Works.

DURHAM SOAP

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
6½ Years, December, 1880 ..		64,378	65,883	4,193	1,654	2,119	7,966
5 " " 1885 ..		72,553	73,425	4,513	1,530	1,728	7,771
5 " " 1890 ..		106,021	105,101	8,676	1,615	1,319	11,610
5½ " March, 1896 ..		180,868	175,503	10,149	925	1,364	12,438
21½ Years' Total.....		423,820	419,912	27,531	5,724	6,530	39,785

NOTE.—Works sold 1896 and Trade transferred to Irlam.

DUNSTON FLOUR

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
4 Years & 36 Weeks, Dec., 1895 .		1,521,168	1,502,636	86,159	29,715	23,219	139,093
5 " " 1900 .		2,772,171	2,732,924	139,138	33,810	19,647	192,595
Year (53 weeks) " 1901 .		664,700	639,955	35,695	6,802	3,735	46,232
" " 1902 .		664,193	644,077	34,801	6,938	3,980	45,719
" " 1903 .		668,961	647,964	31,037	7,046	3,986	42,069
" " 1904 .		652,846	654,053	29,018	5,388	4,204	38,610
" " 1905 .		679,719	666,908	32,933	5,296	6,097	44,326
Half Year, June, 1906 .		353,522	349,844	15,952	4,015	3,798	23,765
15 Years and 10 Weeks' Total .		7,982,280	7,838,361	404,733	99,010	68,666	572,409

WORKS TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRODUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
6½ Years, December, 1880		12 1 9½	2 5	* 508	0 1½	8,571
5 " " 1885		10 11 8	2 1½	1,099	0 3½	4,361
5 " " 1890		11 0 11½	2 2½	2,822	0 6½	5,097
5½ " March, 1896		7 1 8½	1 5	11,535	1 3½	2,046
21½ Years' Total.....		9 9 5½	1 10½	14,948	0 8½	..

* Loss.

MILL TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRO- DUCTION.		Amo'nt.	Rate per £ on Sup- plies.	Amo'nt.	Rate per £ on Sup- plies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.					
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
4 Years & 36 Weeks, Dec., 1895.		9 5 1½	1 10½	31,884	0 5	71,374
5 "	" 1900.	7 0 11½	1 4½	20,952	0 1½	54,476
Year (53 weeks)	" 1901.	7 4 5¾	1 5¼	2,890	0 1	77,637
"	" 1902.	7 1 11½	1 5	2,626	0 0½	88,989
"	" 1903.	6 9 10½	1 3½	8,966	0 3½	92,113
"	" 1904.	5 18 0¾	1 2¾	8,660	0 3½	78,844
"	" 1905.	6 12 11½	1 3½	11,775	0 4½	131,541
Half Year,	June, 1906	6 15 10¼	1 4¼	791	0 0½	98,072
15 Years and 10 Weeks' Total.		7 6 0¾	1 5½	56,660	..	31,884
Less Loss				31,884	
Leaves Net Profit ..				24,776	0 0¾	

SILVERTOWN FLOUR

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages & Sundry.	Depre- ciation.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
Half Year, December, 1900.....		62,476	61,569	5,524	1,804	1,118	8,446
Year (53 weeks) ,, 1901.....		209,220	193,113	11,787	3,720	2,524	18,031
,, ,, 1902		327,436	325,389	16,005	4,552	3,123	23,680
,, ,, 1903.....		402,647	394,993	19,254	5,653	3,886	28,793
,, ,, 1904.....		419,372	420,780	21,017	5,722	3,990	30,729
,, ,, 1905.....		444,324	437,469	24,032	5,724	4,197	33,953
Half Year, June, 1906.....		237,321	232,695	10,539	3,858	2,697	17,094
6 Years' Total		2,102,796	2,066,008	108,158	31,033	21,535	160,726

Note *re* additional Flour Mills.—The following Mills were acquired by the Provender Mill, Manchester; Star Flour

MANCHESTER TOBACCO

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£
2 Years and 28½ Weeks, Dec., 1900		436,841	32,199	1,944	3,069	37,212
Year (53 weeks) ,, 1901		284,118	18,826	1,306	2,172	22,304
,, ,, 1902		320,864	19,896	1,395	2,225	23,516
,, ,, 1903		358,609	21,973	1,476	2,142	25,591
,, ,, 1904		412,259	24,516	1,557	2,295	28,368
,, ,, 1905		471,126	26,230	1,646	3,073	30,949
Half Year, June, 1906		247,165	14,415	944	1,813	17,172
8 Years' Total		2,530,982	158,055	10,268	16,789	185,112

MILL TRADE.

Commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRODUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
Half Year, December, 1900.....		13 14 4½	2 8½	* 4,381	1 4½	18,538
Year (53 weeks) „	1901.....	9 6 8½	1 10½	* 3,266	0 9½	27,993
„	1902.....	7 5 6½	1 5½	2,653	0 1½	35,972
„	1903.....	7 5 9½	1 5½	3,250	0 1½	36,016
„	1904.....	7 6 0½	1 5½	6,586	0 3½	48,886
„	1905.....	7 15 2½	1 6½	1,739	0 0½	31,712
Half Year, June,	1906.....	7 6 11	1 5½	* 2,332	0 2½	66,160
6 Years' Total		7 15 7	1 6½	4,249	0 0½	..

C.W.S. during the Half Year ended June 23rd, 1906, viz., Sun Flour and Mill, Oldham; and Rochdale Flour Mill.

* Loss.

FACTORY TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£
2 Years and 28½ Weeks, December, 1900.....		6,488	0 3½	44,502
Year (53 weeks)	1901.....	4,669	0 3½	39,350
"	1902.....	6,123	0 4½	46,748
"	1903.....	7,439	0 4½	43,538
"	1904.....	9,799	0 5½	55,631
"	1905.....	7,296	0 3½	77,749
Half Year,	June, 1905.....	1,933	0 1½	88,134
8 Years' Total		43,747	0 4½	..

WEST HARTLEPOOL LARD REFINERY

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
4 Years and 37 Wks., Dec., 1900..		£ 374,595	£ 12,475	£ 3,690	£ 3,298	£ 19,463
Year (53 weeks)	" 1901..	159,877	4,770	849	802	6,421
"	" 1902..	172,075	3,357	941	768	5,066
"	" 1903..	124,160	2,977	946	848	4,771
"	" 1904..	105,445	2,690	932	710	4,332
"	" 1905..	90,647	2,485	920	580	3,985
Half Year,	June, 1906..	52,218	1,257	482	271	2,013
10 Years and 11 Weeks' Total..		1,079,617	30,011	8,760	7,280	46,051

NOTE.—Egg Department closed June, 1904.

LONGSIGHT PRINTING

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
47 Weeks, December, 1895		£ 7,512	£ 3,391	£ 591	£ 415	£ 4,997
5 Years,	" 1900	177,885	79,927	10,957	5,531	96,415
Year (53 wks)	" 1901	73,056	30,351	3,980	2,107	37,038
"	" 1902	81,069	33,351	4,314	2,240	39,905
"	" 1903	86,913	36,914	4,433	2,218	43,565
"	" 1904	91,409	40,538	4,580	2,280	47,348
"	" 1905	97,450	45,266	4,573	2,343	52,182
Half Year, June,	1906	51,137	22,787	2,416	1,250	26,453
11 Years and 5 Months' Total.....		666,436	293,125	35,794	18,384	347,303

AND EGG WAREHOUSE TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
4 Years and 37 Weeks, December, 1900		£ 7,496	s. d. 0 4½	£ 14,053
Year (53 weeks)				
" 1901	"	2,165	0 3½	13,893
" 1902	"	7,171	0 9½	19,101
" 1903	"	* 1,026	0 1½	12,721
" 1904	"	638	0 1½	6,271
" 1905	"	1,470	0 3½	6,279
Half Year,	June, 1906	592	0 2½	9,107
10 Years and 11 Weeks' Total		18,446	0 4	..

* Loss.

WORKS TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
47 Weeks, December, 1895		£ 475	s. d. 1 3½	£ 1,089
5 Years,	" 1900	6,798	0 9½	11,818
Year (53 weeks)	" 1901	2,227	0 7½	14,158
"	" 1902	2,324	0 6½	13,446
"	" 1903	4,791	1 1½	16,160
"	" 1904	2,522	0 6½	17,883
"	" 1905	1,505	0 3½	18,693
Half Year, June,	1906	1,006	0 4½	17,764
11 Years and 5 Months' Total		21,648	0 7½	..

LITTLEBOROUGH FLANNEL

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£
2$\frac{3}{4}$ Years,	December, 1900	56,517	12,093	1,515	952	14,560
Year (53 weeks)	" 1901	20,058	5,166	634	393	6,193
"	" 1902	19,220	5,653	513	453	6,619
"	" 1903	18,639	6,378	380	560	7,318
"	" 1904	20,562	5,297	380	579	6,256
"	" 1905	22,399	5,604	380	562	6,546
Half Year,	June, 1906	7,699	2,748	190	268	3,206
8$\frac{1}{4}$ Years' Total		165,094	42,939	3,992	3,767	50,698

LEICESTER HOSIERY

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages and Sundry.	Depre- ciation.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£
Half Year,	December, 1903	32,382	6,975	997	912	8,894
Year	" 1904	68,476	19,528	2,029	1,670	23,227
"	" 1905	67,457	18,078	2,094	1,977	22,149
Half Year,	June, 1906	30,470	8,695	1,053	954	10,702
3 Years' Total		198,785	53,276	6,173	5,513	64,962

MILL TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£
2½ Years,	December, 1900.....	13	..	7,992
Year (53 weeks)	1901.....	24	0 0½	7,771
"	1902.....	876	0 10½	8,865
"	1903.....	378	0 4½	12,874
"	1904.....	* 610	0 7	10,356
"	1905.....	* 268	0 2½	7 693
Half Year,	June, 1906.....	* 23	0 0½	12,882
8½ Years' Total	390	0 0½	..

* Loss.

FACTORY TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
Half Year,	December, 1903	1,174	0 8½	22,596
Year,	" 1904	1,632	0 5½	29,330
"	" 1905	203	0 0½	26,549
Half Year,	June, 1906	744	0 5½	31,272
3 Years' Total	2,376	..	1,377
	Less Loss	1,377	..			
	Leaves Net Profit	999	0 1½			

DESBORO' CORSET

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£
Half Year, December, 1905	5,142	2,286	56	131	2,473
„ June, 1906	8,824	3,750	136	203	4,089
1 Year's Total	13,966	6,036	192	334	6,562

BATLEY WOOLLEN

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
4 Years, December, 1890	44,326	47,618	20,973	1,124	1,607	22,704
5 „ „ 1895	95,265	94,954	31,138	2,239	1,990	35,367
5 „ „ 1900	183,387	183,125	48,641	4,394	2,808	55,843
Year (53 wks) „ 1901	52,952	51,996	13,796	1,158	682	15,636
„ „ 1902	51,351	52,666	14,468	1,158	671	16,297
„ „ 1903	48,871	49,776	14,504	1,881	1,032	17,417
„ „ 1904	42,861	42,019	13,803	2,058	1,070	16,931
„ „ 1905	48,691	49,314	15,300	2,119	1,111	18,530
Half Year, June, 1906	23,553	22,080	7,244	1,072	543	8,859
19½ Years' Total	591,557	593,548	179,867	17,203	11,514	208,584

BURY

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£
37 Weeks, December, 1905	27,620	7,668	1,223	823	9,714
Half Year, June, 1906	25,390	6,012	1,052	671	7,735
1 Year and 11 Weeks' Total	53,010	13,680	2,275	1,494	17,449

FACTORY TRADE.*commencement.*

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
Half Year, December, 1905		£ 494	s. d. 1 10½	£ 7,558
„ June, 1906		48	0 1½	8,902
1 Year's Total		532	0 9½	..

MILL TRADE.*commencement.*

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRO- DUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
4 Years, December, 1890.....		£ s. d. 49 15 7	s. d. 9 11½	*6796	s. d. 3 0½	£ 7,326
5 " " 1895.....		37 4 11½	7 5½	3,039	0 7½	8,139
5 " " 1900.....		30 9 10½	6 1½	7,648	0 10	10,904
Year (53 wks) " 1901.....		30 1 5½	6 0½	3,783	1 5½	10,155
" " 1902.....		30 18 10½	6 2½	1,860	0 8½	12,773
" " 1903.....		34 19 9½	6 11½	271	0 1½	12,068
" " 1904.....		40 5 10½	8 0½	127	0 0½	11,931
" " 1905.....		37 11 6½	7 6½	1,203	0 5½	12,886
Half Year, June, 1906.....		40 2 5½	8 0½	413	0 4½	10,790
19½ Years' Total		35 2 10	7 0½	11,548	0 4½	..

* Loss.

WEAVING SHED.*commencement.*

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
37 Weeks, December, 1905		£ 650	s. d. 0 5½	£ 6,129
Half Year, June, 1906		85	0 0½	8,286
1 Year and 11 Weeks' Total		735	0 3½	..

LEEDS CLOTHING

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
2½ Years, December, 1890		£ 10,652	£ 6,414	£ 149	£ 128	£ 6,691
5 " " 1895		97,978	53,712	908	760	55,375
5 " " 1900		198,863	109,204	2,639	1,740	113,583
Year (53 wks) " 1901		52,184	27,189	602	419	28,210
" " 1902		53,295	28,660	1,260	735	30,655
" " 1903		49,655	27,143	1,201	625	28,969
" " 1904		46,712	26,849	1,150	605	28,604
" " 1905		49,168	27,797	1,152	554	29,503
Half Year, June, 1906		32,934	16,585	526	254	17,365
17½ Years' Total		591,441	323,553	9,582	5,820	338,955

BROUGHTON CLOTHING

Since publishing a separate

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
Half Year, December, 1895		£ 7,561	£ 4,920	£ 171	£ 106	£ 5,197
5 Years, " 1900		146,319	96,238	3,671	2,252	102,161
Year (53 wks) " 1901		40,180	25,444	994	639	27,077
" " 1902		42,716	26,714	1,105	668	28,487
" " 1903		42,906	26,794	1,182	660	28,636
" " 1904		38,920	24,457	1,186	652	26,295
" " 1905		40,065	24,565	1,163	626	26,354
Half Year, June, 1906		21,407	13,005	585	327	13,917
11 Years' Total		380,074	242,137	10,057	5,930	258,124

FACTORY TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
2½ Years, December, 1890		£ ..	s. d. ..	£ 1,125	s. d. 2 1½	£ 1,316
5 " " 1895		5,663	1 1½	5,276
5 " " 1900		13,728	1 4½	9,764
Year (53 weeks) " 1901		2,948	1 1½	9,274
" " 1902		2,010	0 9	9,833
" " 1903		2,304	0 11½	8,712
" " 1904		1,213	0 6½	8,112
" " 1905		2,474	1 0	8,860
Half Year, June, 1906		1,352	0 9½	4,617
17½ Years' Total		31,692	..	1,125
	Less Loss	1,125	..			
	Leaves Net Profit ..	30,567	1 0½			

FACTORY TRADE.

Account in the Balance Sheet.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
Half Year, December, 1895		£ 254	s. d. 0 8	£ ..	s. d. ..	£ 1,003
5 Years, " 1900	1,677	0 2½	5,453
Year (53 weeks) " 1901		699	0 4½	4,522
" " 1902		727	0 4	3,620
" " 1903		1,252	0 7	2,915
" " 1904		1,528	0 9½	2,273
" " 1905		2,420	1 2½	3,906
Half Year, June, 1906		1,005	0 11½	2,530
11 Years' Total		7,894	..	1,677
	Less Loss	1,677	..			
	Leaves Net Profit	6,217	0 3½			

LEICESTER BOOT AND

Since keeping

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
2½ Years, January,	1876	86,565	97,576	28,264	166	914	29,344
5 "	December, 1880	369,357	362,821	127,772	1,947	4,987	184,706
5 "	" 1885	495,321	493,020	182,021	3,369	5,822	191,212
5 "	" 1890	771,134	783,457	291,291	5,724	7,622	304,637
5 "	" 1895	1,264,427	1,269,859	495,923	19,269	23,491	538,683
5 "	" 1900	1,560,965	1,546,483	593,400	27,815	24,566	645,781
Year (53 wks) "	1901	358,221	336,573	129,198	5,005	4,286	138,489
" "	1902	359,530	381,076	144,976	4,996	4,283	154,260
" "	1903	375,570	379,658	148,286	4,995	4,801	158,082
" "	1904	358,980	328,538	127,200	5,055	4,616	136,871
" "	1905	360,520	355,782	137,459	5,083	5,243	147,755
Half Year, June,	1906	208,298	184,758	68,219	2,590	2,259	73,068
32½ Years' Total	6,568,888	6,519,601	2,474,009	86,014	92,895	2,652,918

HECKMONDWIKE BOOT, SHOE,

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Boot and Shoe Produc- tion.	TOTAL EXPENSES.			
				Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£	£
Half Year, December,	1880	3,060	3,438	1,057	16	30	1,103
5 Years,	" 1885	83,295	85,197	27,824	461	1,038	29,323
5 "	" 1890	139,007	117,020	44,539	2,389	2,857	49,785
5 "	" 1895	229,350	192,594	78,872	4,552	5,408	88,832
5 "	" 1900	280,601	238,078	100,647	8,605	6,104	115,356
Year (53 weeks) "	1901	65,577	59,582	21,749	2,031	1,266	25,046
" "	1902	67,964	65,664	23,080	2,034	1,287	26,401
" "	1903	73,109	62,157	24,090	2,034	1,222	27,346
" "	1904	71,344	67,083	25,211	2,034	1,183	28,428
" "	1905	64,884	53,151	21,658	2,050	1,203	24,911
Half Year, June,	1906	23,892	25,529	10,432	1,049	647	12,128
26 Years' Total	1,102,083	969,493	379,159	27,255	22,245	428,659

SHOE WORKS TRADE.

a separate Account.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRODUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
2½ Years, January,	1876	30 1 5½	6 0½	1,488	0 4½	9,186
5 "	December, 1880	37 2 6½	7 5	4,008	0 2½	15,772
5 "	" 1885	38 15 8	7 9	8,630	0 4½	15,752
5 "	" 1890	38 17 8	7 9½	35,946	0 11½	61,935
5 "	" 1895	42 8 4½	8 5½	24,347	0 4½	101,621
5 "	" 1900	41 15 1½	8 4½	27,905	0 4½	114,013
Year (53 weeks) "	1901	41 2 11½	8 2½	6,455	0 4½	83,329
"	" 1902	40 9 7½	8 1½	7,390	0 4½	121,762
"	" 1903	41 12 9	8 3½	*1,226	0 0½	129,377
"	" 1904	41 13 2½	8 3½	6,334	0 4½	127,940
"	" 1905	41 10 9½	8 3½	*9,336	0 2½	114,216
Half Year, June,	1906	39 10 11½	7 10½	3,084	0 3½	118,596
32½ Years' Total	40 13 9½	8 1½	121,025	0 4½	..

* Loss.

AND CURRYING WORKS TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.	
		BOOT & SHOE RATE ON PRODUCTION.							
		Per cent.	Per £.	Amo'nt.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	Amo'nt.	Rate per £ on Supplies.		
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	
Half Year, December, 1880..		32 1 7½	6 4½	181	1 2½	2,473	
5 Years,									
5	"	1885..	34 8 4½	6 10½	71	0 0½	..	5,314	
5	"	1890..	35 16 1½	7 1½	4,953	0 8½	..	11,325	
5	"	1895..	38 2 1½	7 7½	9,416	0 9½	..	20,711	
5	"	1900..	40 18 2½	8 2½	2,273	0 1½	15,437
Year (53 weeks)	"	1901..	37 2 6½	7 5	2,121	0 8	..	15,403	
"	"	1902..	35 8 6½	7 1	3,253	0 11½	..	15,760	
"	"	1903..	38 10 8½	7 8½	2,020	0 6½	..	10,460	
"	"	1904..	37 10 7	7 6	1,000	0 3½	..	16,565	
"	"	1905..	41 18 6½	8 4½	2,320	0 8½	12,935
Half Year, June,		1906..	41 11 9½	8 3½	2,512	2 1½	22,250
26 Years' Total		38 4 4½	7 7½	22,834	..	7,286
Less Loss				7,286	..				
Leaves Net Profit..				15,548	0 3½				

RUSHDEN BOOT AND

From

HALF-YEARLY

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	Produc- tion.	EXPENSES.			
				Wages & Sundry.	Depre- ciation.	Interest.	Total.
31 Weeks, December, 1900.....		£ 11,091	£ 11,806	£ 4,215	£ 68	£ 83	£ 4,366
Year (53 weeks) ,, 1901.....		21,584	22,673	7,846	232	274	8,352
" " 1902.....		45,134	45,888	13,388	1,097	723	15,208
" " 1903.....		59,497	64,870	18,334	1,106	773	20,213
" " 1904.....		73,451	74,389	20,740	1,106	926	22,672
" " 1905.....		86,254	87,820	23,917	1,650	1,271	26,838
Half Year, June, 1906.....		51,743	54,726	13,723	865	773	15,361
6 Years and 5 Weeks' Total ..		348,754	362,172	102,163	6,124	4,723	113,010

BROUGHTON CABINET

From

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
4 Years, December, 1895		£ 22,423	£ 15,442	£ 1,216	£ 1,326	£ 17,984
5 " " 1900		65,846	39,217	2,414	2,524	44,155
Year (53 wks) ,, 1901		13,259	6,833	518	425	7,776
" " 1902		13,186	6,861	522	441	7,824
" " 1903		12,302	7,011	596	486	8,093
" " 1904		13,838	7,526	627	502	8,655
" " 1905		17,344	8,616	658	509	9,783
Half Year, June, 1906		10,508	4,620	336	295	5,251
14½ Years' Total		168,656	96,126	6,887	6,508	109,521

SHOE WORKS TRADE.

commencement.

ACCOUNTS.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	EXPENSES.		NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		RATE ON PRODUCTION.		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		Per cent.	Per £.			
		£ s. d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
31 Weeks, December, 1900		36 19 7½	7 4½	964	1 8½	2,482
Year (53 weeks) „ 1901		36 16 8½	7 4½	1,701	1 6½	4,332
„ „ 1902		33 2 9½	6 7½	3,680	1 7½	5,439
„ „ 1903		31 3 2½	6 2½	5,562	1 10½	11,724
„ „ 1904		30 9 6½	6 1½	5,424	1 5½	13,612
„ „ 1905		30 11 2½	6 1½	5,703	1 3½	20,549
Half Year, June, 1906		28 1 4½	5 7½	2,647	1 0½	22,019
6 Years and 5 Weeks' Total		31 4 0½	6 2½	25,681	1 5½	..

WORKS TRADE.

commencement.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
4 Years, December, 1895	1,305	1 1½	7,257
5 „ „ 1900	5,950	1 9½	4,452
Year (53 wks) „ 1901		337	0 6	4,187
„ „ 1902		181	0 3½	4,581
„ „ 1903	1,158	1 10½	4,977
„ „ 1904	204	0 3½	5,323
„ „ 1905		412	0 5½	7,584
Half Year, June, 1906		160	0 3½	6,678
14½ Years' Total		1090	..	8,617
		Less Profit		1,090	..	
		Leaves Net Loss		7,527	0 10½	

HUDDERSFIELD AND LEEDS

Since publishing a separate

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£
Half Year, December, 1904		4,477	2,239	57	100	2,426
Year, " 1905		12,337	5,291	220	241	5,752
Half Year, June, 1906		8,219	3,103	163	138	3,404
2 Years' Total		25,033	10,633	470	479	11,582

PELAW PRINTING

Since publishing a separate

PERIOD.	ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
			Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
		£	£	£	£	£
Year, December, 1904		6,528	2,623	606	418	3,647
" " 1905		9,002	4,011	537	282	4,830
Half Year, June, 1906		4,408	1,919	183	90	2,192
2½ Years' Total		19,938	8,553	1,326	790	10,669

BRUSH FACTORIES TRADE.

Account in Balance Sheet.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£
Half Year, December, 1904	198	0 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	3,734
Year, " 1905	763	1 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	4,453
Half Year, June, 1906	531	1 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	3,397
2 Years' Total	1,096	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$

WORKS TRADE.

Account in Balance Sheet.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	RESULT OF WORKING.		Stocks at end.
		Profit.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£
Year, December, 1904	237	0 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	224
" " 1905	301	0 8	315
Half Year, June, 1906	95	0 5 $\frac{1}{4}$	216
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ Years' Total	633	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$..

PELAW TAILORING, KERSEY,

Since publishing a separate

PERIOD. ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
		Wages & Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£
Year, December, 1904	32,576	10,133	1,183	649	11,965
" " 1905	33,416	10,785	1,188	749	12,722
Half Year, June, 1906	19,802	5,902	517	349	6,768
2½ Years' Total	85,794	26,820	2,888	1,747	31,455

PELAW CABINET

Since publishing a separate

PERIOD. ENDED.	Net Supplies.	EXPENSES.			
		Wages and Sundry.	Deprecia- tion.	Interest.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£
Year, December, 1904	21,427	13,696	2,023	1,200	16,919
" " 1905	30,796	17,963	1,889	1,234	21,086
Half Year, June, 1906	13,014	6,866	807	577	8,250
2½ Years' Total	65,237	38,525	4,719	3,011	46,255

AND SHIRT FACTORIES TRADE.

Account in Balance Sheet.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET PROFIT.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£
Year,	December, 1904.....	852	0 6½	3,688
"	" 1905.....	*127	0 0½	5,606
Half Year,	June, 1906.....	562	0 6½	4,033
	2½ Years' Total	1,287	0 3½	..

* Loss.

WORKS TRADE.

Account in Balance Sheet.

PERIOD.	ENDED.	NET LOSS.		Stocks at end.
		Amount.	Rate per £ on Supplies.	
		£	s. d.	£
Year,	December, 1904	1,783	1 7½	8,379
"	" 1905	31	0 0½	9,877
Half Year,	June, 1906	1,485	2 3½	9,939
	2½ Years' Total	3,299	1 0½	..

DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES AND RATE PER CENT. ON

SALES= Expenses=	GRAND TOTAL.	
	£18,985,686.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.
Wages.....	189867-63	240-02
Auditors' Fees and Mileages.....	475-66	'60
" Deputation Fees.....	52-58	'06
" " Fares.....	82-00	'10
" Fares.....	44-00	'06
Fees and Mileages—General and Branch Committees.....	4246-89	5-37
" " Stocktakers.....	55-60	'07
" " Scrutineers.....	27-86	'03
" " Deputations.....	2166-89	2-74
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees.....	1836-12	1-69
" " Stocktakers.....	10-93	'01
" " Scrutineers.....	8-80	'01
" " Deputations.....	943-61	1-19
Price Lists: Printing.....	5950-71	7-52
" Postage.....	707-04	'89
Balance Sheets: Printing.....	357-00	'45
Printing and Stationery.....	10671-88	13-49
Periodicals.....	295-38	'37
Travelling.....	20108-15	25-41
Stamps.....	7474-00	9-45
Telegrams.....	833-25	1-05
Miscellaneous.....	1472-03	1-86
Advertisements and Showcards.....	2107-16	2-67
"Wheatsheaf" Record.....	8265-45	10-45
Rents, Rates, and Taxes.....	11070-39	14-00
Power, Lighting, and Heating.....	5659-83	7-16
Oil, Waste, and Tallow.....	759-78	'96
Exhibition and Congress.....	1656-37	2-09
Quarterly Meetings.....	831-02	1-05
Telephones.....	895-01	1-13
Employés' Picnic.....	220-84	'28
Legal.....	387-86	'50
"Annual," 1905.....	753-30	'95
Dining-rooms.....	13404-56	16-95
Repairs, Renewals, &c.....	14860-52	18-78
Insurance.....	5051-38	6-38
Depreciation: Land.....	4205-97	5-32
" Buildings.....	12823-25	16-21
" Fixtures.....	4992-56	6-31
Interest.....	61639-48	77-22
Totals.....	396767-79	501-55
	= £2/1/9-5

SALES FOR THE YEAR ENDED DECEMBER 23RD, 1905.

SUMMARY OF DISTRICT TOTALS.

MANCHESTER.		NEWCASTLE.		LONDON.	
£10,781,084.		£4,169,277.		£4,035,325.	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
93477-06	208-09	51766-93	297-99	44623-64	265-38
269-52	-60	104-75	-60	101-39	-61
29-80	-06	11-57	-07	11-21	-07
46-42	-10	18-10	-11	17-48	-10
24-92	-06	9-70	-06	9-38	-05
1499-01	3-34	1375-27	7-92	1372-61	8-16
23-90	-05	13-87	-08	17-83	-10
15-80	-03	6-13	-04	5-93	-03
953-00	2-12	676-30	3-89	537-59	3-20
415-98	-93	400-34	2-31	519-80	3-09
5-84	-01	2-78	-02	2-36	-01
4-99	-01	1-93	-01	1-88	-01
463-61	1-03	182-09	1-02	297-91	1-77
3219-75	7-17	787-22	4-53	1943-74	11-56
456-99	1-02	59-05	-34	191-00	1-13
202-61	-45	63-73	-37	90-66	-54
6039-70	13-45	1948-21	11-22	2683-97	15-97
181-11	-40	52-28	-30	61-99	-37
10223-06	22-76	3643-43	20-97	6236-64	37-11
3964-68	8-82	1471-44	8-47	2037-88	12-12
606-35	1-35	201-28	1-16	25-62	-15
822-77	1-83	339-29	1-95	309-97	1-84
1250-74	2-78	427-82	2-46	428-60	2-52
4683-74	10-42	1819-52	10-47	1762-19	10-48
4862-25	10-82	2984-05	17-18	3224-09	19-17
2722-40	6-03	1506-50	8-67	1430-93	8-51
645-04	1-43	71-69	-41	43-05	-26
1433-69	3-20	145-47	-84	77-21	-46
663-82	1-48	60-26	-35	106-94	-64
455-03	1-01	268-76	1-55	171-22	1-02
115-20	-25	36-78	-21	68-86	-41
47-74	-16	191-17	1-10	148-95	-90
426-55	-96	166-14	-96	160-61	-95
7807-73	17-38	2993-20	17-23	2603-63	15-50
7007-28	15-60	3850-30	22-16	4003-94	23-82
1984-30	4-42	1279-42	7-37	1787-66	10-63
2836-09	6-31	936-30	5-39	433-58	2-58
4925-24	10-96	6657-46	38-32	1240-55	7-38
1732-77	3-86	2839-48	16-35	420-31	2-50
30974-43	68-95	17861-40	102-82	12803-65	76-16
197520-93	439-70	107231-41	617-27	92015-45	547-26
..	£1/18/7-7	£2/11/5-2	£2/5/7-2

DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES AND RATE PER CENT. ON

SALES = Expenses =	MANCHESTER.			
	TOTALS.		GROCERY.	
	£10,781,084.		£9,137,793.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	93477-06	208-09	47683-68	125-25
Auditors' Fees and Mileages	269-52	-60	228-45	-60
" Deputation Fees	29-80	-06	25-27	-08
" " Fares	46-42	-10	39-12	-10
" Fares	24-92	-06	21-13	-06
Fees and Mileages—General and Branch Committees.....	1499-01	3-34	1009-71	2-65
" " Stocktakers	23-90	-05	8-09	-02
" " Scrutineers	15-80	-03	13-45	-03
" " Deputations	953-00	2-12	709-35	1-86
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Committees.....	415-98	-93	327-87	-86
" " Stocktakers	5-84	-01	4-81	-01
" " Scrutineers	4-99	-01	4-26	-01
" " Deputations	463-61	1-03	312-26	-82
Price Lists: Printing	3219-75	7-17	1762-52	4-63
" Postage	456-99	1-02	386-47	1-01
Balance Sheets: Printing.....	202-61	-45	171-66	-45
Printing and Stationery.....	6039-70	13-45	3553-67	9-34
Periodicals	181-11	-40	155-25	-41
Travelling	10223-08	22-76	3512-52	9-23
Stamps	3964-68	8-82	3330-77	8-75
Telegrams	606-35	1-35	514-47	1-35
Miscellaneous	822-77	1-83	646-54	1-70
Advertisements and Showcards	1250-74	2-73	862-04	2-26
" Wheatsheaf" Record	4683-74	10-42	3973-16	10-44
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	4862-25	10-82	2272-72	5-97
Power, Lighting, and Heating.....	2722-40	6-03	1151-74	3-02
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	645-04	1-43	547-86	1-44
Exhibition and Congress	1433-69	3-20	1108-23	2-91
Quarterly Meetings	663-82	1-48	562-85	1-48
Telephones	455-03	1-01	382-76	1-00
Employés' Picnic	115-20	-25	49-72	-13
Legal.....	47-74	-16	45-62	-12
" Annual," 1905	426-55	-96	360-09	-94
Dining-rooms	7807-73	17-38	5205-15	13-67
Repairs, Renewals, &c.	7007-28	15-60	5165-64	13-56
Insurance.....	1984-30	4-42	855-39	2-25
Depreciation: Land	2836-09	6-31	1136-23	2-93
" Buildings	4925-24	10-96	1992-21	5-23
" Fixtures	1732-77	3-86	493-54	1-29
Interest.....	30974-43	68-95	17601-17	46-24
Totals	197520-93	439-70	108187-44	284-15
		=		=
	..	£1/16/7-7	..	£1/3/8-1

SALES FOR THE YEAR ENDED DEC. 23RD, 1905—*continued.*

MANCHESTER.

DRAPERY.		WOOLLENS AND READY-MADES.		BOOTS AND SHOES.		FURNISHING.	
£721,769.		£188,015.		£388,600.		£344,907.	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
23241-33	772-81	5148-52	657-20	7660-49	473-16	9743-04	677-96
18-13	60	4-76	55	9-80	60	8-38	58
2-00	07	52	06	1-08	06	93	07
3-13	10	91	11	1-78	11	1-48	10
1-68	06	43	05	90	05	78	05
217-02	7-22	55-98	7-15	116-46	7-21	99-84	6-95
10-23	34	1-54	20	1-96	12	2-08	15
1-06	04	26	03	55	03	48	03
146-14	4-86	29-79	3-80	24-76	1-54	42-96	2-99
39-31	1-30	9-91	1-22	20-66	1-28	18-23	1-27
43	01	16	02	25	02	19	01
33	01	08	01	17	01	15	01
111-47	3-71	13-10	1-67	15-45	95	11-33	79
799-87	26-60	559-40	71-42	53-58	3-30	44-38	3-09
33-95	1-13	1-18	15	10-64	65	24-75	1-72
13-65	45	3-60	46	7-40	46	6-90	44
1225-13	40-73	270-76	34-56	520-03	32-12	470-11	32-71
10-04	33	3-89	50	6-03	37	5-90	41
4136-82	137-55	1306-08	166-73	610-11	37-70	657-55	45-75
291-90	9-71	79-53	10-15	141-40	8-74	121-08	8-42
38-31	1-27	25-34	3-23	9-62	54	18-61	1-30
75-28	2-50	19-07	2-43	40-42	2-40	41-46	2-89
84-38	2-80	63-67	8-13	226-04	13-97	14-61	1-02
314-77	10-44	81-62	10-42	169-14	10-45	145-05	10-10
1942-98	44-66	199-55	25-47	337-34	20-84	709-66	49-38
784-67	26-10	119-16	15-21	268-27	16-57	398-56	27-73
42-88	1-43	11-27	1-45	23-23	1-43	19-80	1-38
155-13	5-15	43-42	5-54	50-72	3-13	76-19	5-30
44-63	1-48	11-66	1-50	24-10	1-49	20-58	1-43
21-79	72	14-78	1-90	20-62	1-27	15-08	1-05
29-83	99	11-63	1-48	10-40	64	13-62	94
91	03	24	04	54	03	43	03
28-78	96	8-08	1-03	16-12	1-00	13-48	94
1159-80	38-58	294-04	37-55	616-95	38-10	531-79	37-00
1244-73	41-32	183-63	23-45	211-56	13-08	201-72	14-03
519-91	17-30	204-79	26-15	189-66	11-70	214-55	14-93
845-33	28-10	146-68	18-73	228-00	14-09	479-85	33-38
1423-21	47-32	257-06	32-82	395-97	24-46	856-79	59-61
1053-41	35-05	23-35	2-98	38-64	2-38	123-83	8-62
5924-33	197-12	1915-15	244-48	3171-81	195-95	2361-97	164-35
45438-68	1510-95	11124-59	1420-03	15252-65	942-00	17517-57	1218-94
..	£6/5/10-9	..	£5/18/4-0	..	£3/18/6-0	..	£5/1/6-9

DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES AND RATE PER CENT. ON

SALES = Expenses =	NEWCASTLE.			
	TOTALS.		GROCERY.	
	£4,169,277.		£3,090,087.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	51766-93	297-99	21523-39	167-17
Auditors' Fees and Mileages	104-75	-60	77-58	-60
" Deputation Fees	11-57	-07	8-58	-07
" " Fares	18-10	-11	13-30	-10
" " Fares	9-70	-06	7-19	-05
Fees and Mileages—General and Branch Com- mittees	1375-27	7-92	927-20	7-23
" " Stocktakers	13-87	-08	5-49	-04
" " Scrutineers	6-13	-04	4-56	-03
" " Deputations	676-30	3-39	441-90	3-43
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Com- mittees	400-34	2-31	284-88	2-21
" " Stocktakers	2-78	-02	1-60	-01
" " Scrutineers	1-93	-01	1-45	-01
" " Deputations	182-09	1-02	111-62	-86
Price Lists: Printing	787-22	4-53	155-80	1-21
" Postage	59-05	-34	59-05	-46
Balance Sheets: Printing	63-73	-37	47-19	-37
Printing and Stationery	1948-21	11-22	763-78	5-93
Periodicals	52-28	-30	35-05	-27
Travelling	3643-43	20-97	702-65	5-46
Stamps	1471-44	8-47	613-01	4-76
Telegrams	201-28	1-16	136-97	1-06
Miscellaneous	339-29	1-95	236-97	1-84
Advertisements and Showcards	427-82	2-46	229-75	1-78
"Wheatsheaf" Record	1819-52	10-47	1349-04	10-48
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	2984-05	17-18	1066-80	8-29
Power, Lighting, and Heating	1506-50	8-67	880-53	6-64
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	71-69	-41	43-81	-34
Exhibition and Congress	145-47	-84	111-05	-86
Quarterly Meetings	60-26	-35	44-63	-35
Telephones	268-76	1-55	208-65	1-62
Employés' Picnic	36-78	-21	10-91	-09
Legal	191-17	1-10	189-74	1-47
"Annual," 1905	166-14	-96	122-36	-95
Dining-rooms	2993-20	17-23	1992-34	15-47
Repairs, Renewals, &c.	3850-30	22-16	1657-06	12-87
Insurance	1279-42	7-37	530-11	4-12
Depreciation: Land	936-30	5-39	339-54	2-64
Buildings	6657-46	38-32	3315-13	25-74
Fixtures	2839-48	16-35	1479-04	11-49
Interest	17861-40	102-82	8299-10	64-46
Totals	107231-41	617-27	48028-80	373-03
		=		=
	£2/11/5-2	£1/11/1-0

SALES FOR THE YEAR ENDED DEC. 23RD, 1905—*continued.*

NEWCASTLE.

DRAPERY.		WOOLLENS AND READY-MADES.		BOOTS AND SHOES.		FURNISHING.	
£457,380.		£142,566.		£238,972.		£240,272.	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
13982·81	733·70	2575·78	433·60	4390·97	441·00	9293·98	928·37
11·51	·60	3·59	·61	6·02	·60	6·05	·60
1·27	·06	·39	·06	·66	·06	·67	·06
2·02	·10	·67	·11	1·05	·10	1·06	·10
1·06	·05	·33	·06	·56	·06	·56	·05
189·98	9·97	59·04	9·95	99·35	9·98	99·70	9·96
3·12	·16	·63	·11	1·91	·19	2·72	·27
·67	·04	·20	·03	·35	·03	·35	·03
124·89	6·55	14·03	2·96	29·93	3·01	65·55	6·55
49·15	2·58	14·78	2·50	25·73	2·60	25·80	2·58
·27	·01	·61	·10	·15	·01	·15	·01
·21	·01	·06	·01	·11	·01	·10	·01
15·89	·85	4·51	·77	12·09	1·21	37·98	3·79
156·24	8·20	386·69	65·10	42·80	4·34	45·69	4·56
.....
7·00	·36	2·19	·37	3·67	·37	3·68	·37
539·16	28·30	86·65	14·52	167·40	16·80	391·22	39·07
7·33	·38	1·00	·16	3·90	·40	5·00	·50
1485·43	77·95	479·67	80·75	275·32	27·65	700·36	69·96
379·37	19·90	48·40	8·14	96·17	9·66	334·49	33·41
48·05	2·52	2·31	·38	3·80	·38	10·15	1·01
35·34	1·85	7·49	1·26	21·93	2·20	37·56	3·75
23·19	1·22	7·05	1·19	97·38	9·78	70·45	7·04
199·60	10·47	61·81	10·40	104·34	10·48	104·73	10·46
824·37	43·27	187·44	31·56	356·14	35·76	549·90	54·87
244·75	12·85	126·45	21·28	127·01	12·75	127·76	12·76
11·80	·62	3·75	·63	6·13	·62	6·20	·62
14·68	·77	4·35	·73	7·69	·77	7·70	·77
6·62	·35	2·07	·34	3·46	·35	3·48	·35
25·94	1·33	7·93	1·34	13·24	1·33	13·60	1·36
12·10	·64	2·49	·42	2·85	·28	8·43	·84
·60	·03	·21	·03	·31	·03	·31	·03
18·45	·97	6·00	1·02	9·64	·97	9·69	·97
424·96	22·30	130·60	21·99	222·31	22·33	222·99	22·28
894·86	46·96	92·61	15·60	170·00	17·07	1035·77	103·46
358·43	18·81	92·80	15·62	141·58	14·22	156·50	15·63
257·55	13·51	65·41	11·02	106·88	10·70	166·92	16·65
1412·69	74·12	427·37	71·96	583·73	58·62	918·54	91·75
747·78	39·24	153·68	25·87	334·28	33·57	124·70	12·45
4085·66	214·39	1535·98	258·59	1944·40	195·28	1996·26	199·43
26604·20	1395·99	6597·02	1110·54	9415·24	945·57	16586·15	1656·73
.....
.....	£5/16/3·9	£4/12/6·5	£3/18/9·5	£6/18/0·7

DISTRIBUTIVE EXPENSES AND RATE PER CENT. ON

SALES= Expenses=	LONDON.			
	TOTALS.		GROCERY.	
	£4,035,325.		£3,542,656.	
	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
	£	d.	£	d.
Wages	44623-64	265-38	24198-70	163-94
Auditors' Fees and Mileages	101-39	-61	88-99	-63
" Deputation Fees	11-21	-07	9-84	-07
" " Fares	17-48	-10	15-29	-10
" " Fares	9-98	-05	8-23	-05
Fees and Mileages—General and Branch Com- mittees	1372-61	8-16	1038-50	7-03
" " Stocktakers	17-83	-10	8-00	-05
" " Scrutineers	5-93	-03	5-22	-04
" " Deputations	537-59	3-20	419-14	2-83
Fares and Contracts—General and Branch Com- mittees	519-80	3-09	436-93	2-96
" " Stocktakers	2-36	-01	1-81	-01
" " Scrutineers	1-88	-01	1-65	-01
" " Deputations	297-91	1-77	245-29	1-66
Price Lists: Printing	1943-74	11-56	1693-25	12-83
" " Postage	191-00	1-13	191-00	1-30
Balance Sheets: Printing	90-66	-54	79-53	-54
Printing and Stationery	2683-97	15-97	1676-45	11-36
Periodicals	61-99	-37	52-38	-35
Travelling	6236-64	37-11	1893-25	12-83
Stamps	2037-88	12-12	1703-86	11-54
Telegrams	25-62	-15	22-39	-15
Miscellaneous	309-97	1-84	230-37	1-56
Advertisements and Showcards	428-60	2-52	259-90	1-76
"Wheatsheaf" Record	1762-19	10-48	1547-13	10-48
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	3224-09	19-17	1410-31	9-55
Power, Lighting, and Heating	1430-93	8-51	1000-93	6-78
Oil, Waste, and Tallow	43-05	-26	34-90	-24
Exhibition and Congress	77-21	-46	61-40	-41
Quarterly Meetings	106-94	-64	94-38	-64
Telephones	171-22	1-02	136-98	-92
Employés' Picnic	68-86	-41	43-80	-30
Legal	148-95	-90	140-84	-95
"Annual," 1905	160-61	-95	140-59	-95
Dining-rooms	2603-63	15-50	1735-75	11-76
Repairs, Renewals, &c.	4002-94	23-82	3109-88	21-08
Insurance	1787-66	10-63	944-77	6-40
Depreciation: Land	433-58	2-58	227-65	1-54
" Buildings	1240-55	7-38	756-93	5-13
" Fixtures	420-31	2-50	327-52	2-22
Interest	12503-65	76-16	8203-13	55-57
Totals	92015-45	547-26	52950-97	358-72
		=		=
	..	£2/5/7-2	..	£1/9/10-7

SALES FOR THE YEAR ENDED DEC. 23RD, 1905—continued.

L O N D O N .

DRAPERY.		WOOLLENS AND READY-MADES.		BOOTS AND SHOES.		FURNISHING.	
£208,911.		£62,948.		£130,230.		£90,580.	
Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.	Amount.	Rate per £100.
£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
8684.16	997.65	2886.10	1100.39	4110.65	757.55	4744.03	1256.98
5.25	.60	1.58	.61	3.28	.61	2.29	.61
.58	.07	.18	.03	.36	.06	.25	.06
.90	.10	.30	.11	.58	.11	.41	.11
.49	.05	.15	.05	.30	.05	.21	.05
142.04	16.32	42.50	16.20	88.29	16.27	61.28	16.24
3.20	.36	1.23	.47	2.00	.37	3.40	.90
.31	.03	.08	.03	.19	.04	.13	.03
87.76	10.09	6.96	2.67	17.63	3.25	6.10	1.61
35.27	4.05	10.52	4.00	21.93	4.04	15.15	4.01
.25	.03	.05	.02	.10	.02	.15	.04
.10	.01	.03	.01	.06	.01	.04	.01
32.16	3.70	3.87	1.48	10.94	2.02	5.65	1.50
644.63	74.06	663.00	252.78	56.00	10.32	132.75	35.17
.....
4.70	.54	1.44	.55	2.94	.54	2.05	.54
383.65	44.08	214.60	81.83	190.28	35.07	218.99	58.03
3.20	.36	3.04	1.16	1.97	.37	1.40	.37
1920.07	220.58	929.30	354.32	778.59	143.48	715.43	189.56
145.66	16.75	46.52	17.73	79.33	14.62	62.51	16.56
1.20	.13	.45	.17	.93	.17	.65	.17
31.68	3.64	9.80	3.74	12.82	3.65	18.30	4.85
33.73	3.88	24.52	9.34	106.07	19.54	4.38	1.15
91.30	10.50	27.43	10.46	56.84	10.48	39.49	10.46
911.16	104.67	65.73	25.07	148.15	27.32	688.74	182.50
190.86	21.92	53.26	20.30	76.32	14.06	109.56	29.03
2.85	.32	.88	.34	1.88	.35	2.54	.68
6.98	.80	1.23	.48	5.85	1.08	1.75	.46
5.85	.62	1.59	.60	3.32	.60	2.30	.61
30.43	3.50	.38	.15	1.28	.24	2.15	.57
10.53	1.21	3.25	1.24	5.42	1.00	5.86	1.55
3.19	.36	1.02	.38	2.33	.43	1.57	.41
8.34	.96	2.66	1.01	5.30	.98	3.72	.98
370.07	42.51	109.65	41.80	229.28	42.26	158.88	42.10
315.77	36.26	126.23	48.13	210.77	38.84	240.29	63.67
428.06	49.17	116.07	44.24	192.28	35.43	106.48	28.22
64.68	7.43	28.28	10.80	45.11	8.30	67.86	17.48
133.77	15.38	64.70	24.66	83.86	15.45	201.29	53.34
15.95	1.83	45.88	17.50	7.34	1.35	23.62	6.25
2162.45	248.43	612.02	233.36	1052.67	194.00	773.38	204.43
16912.73	1942.95	6106.48	2328.21	7620.24	1404.33	8425.03	2232.29
=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=
..	£8/1/10.9	..	£9/14/0.2	..	£5/17/0.3	..	£9/6/0.2



THE SCOTTISH
CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE
SOCIETY LIMITED.



PLATES, ADVERTISEMENTS, STATISTICS, &c.,

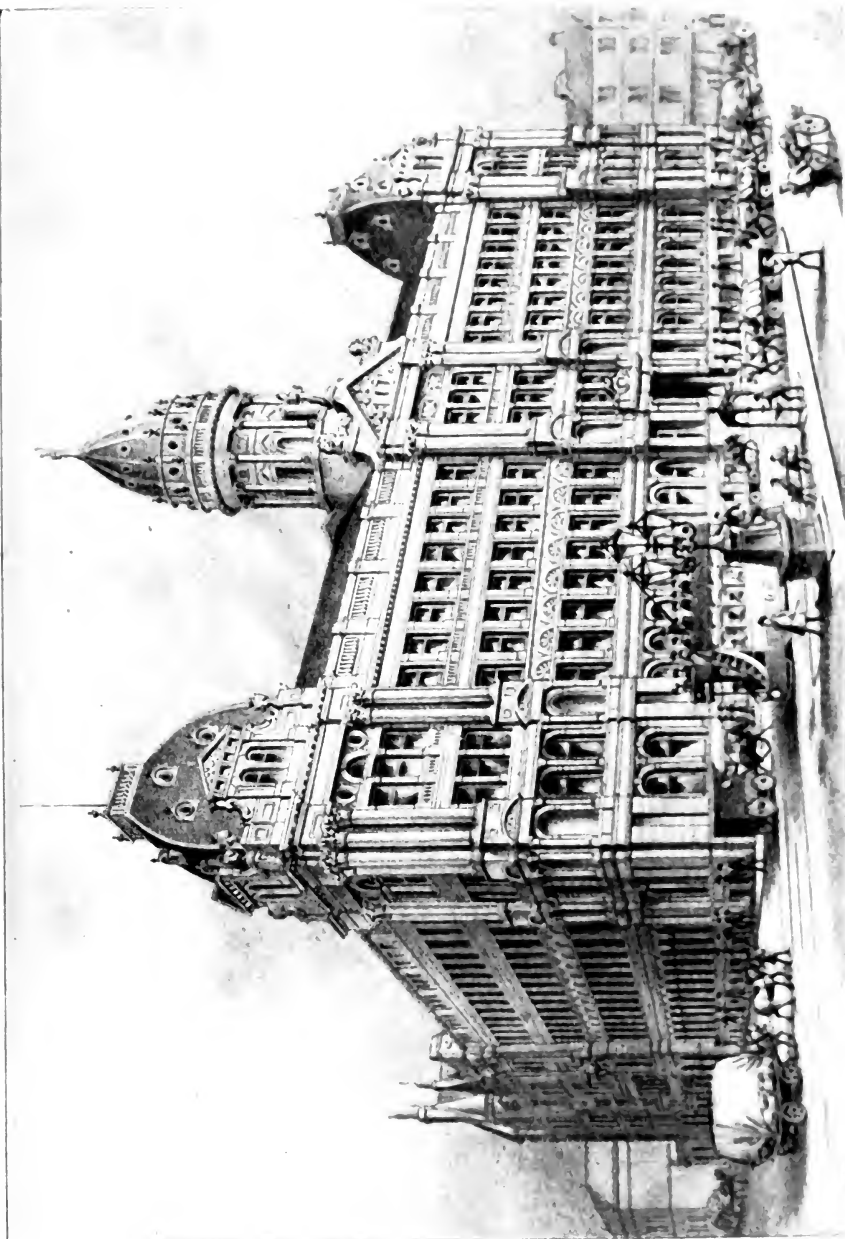
Pages 71 to 115.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

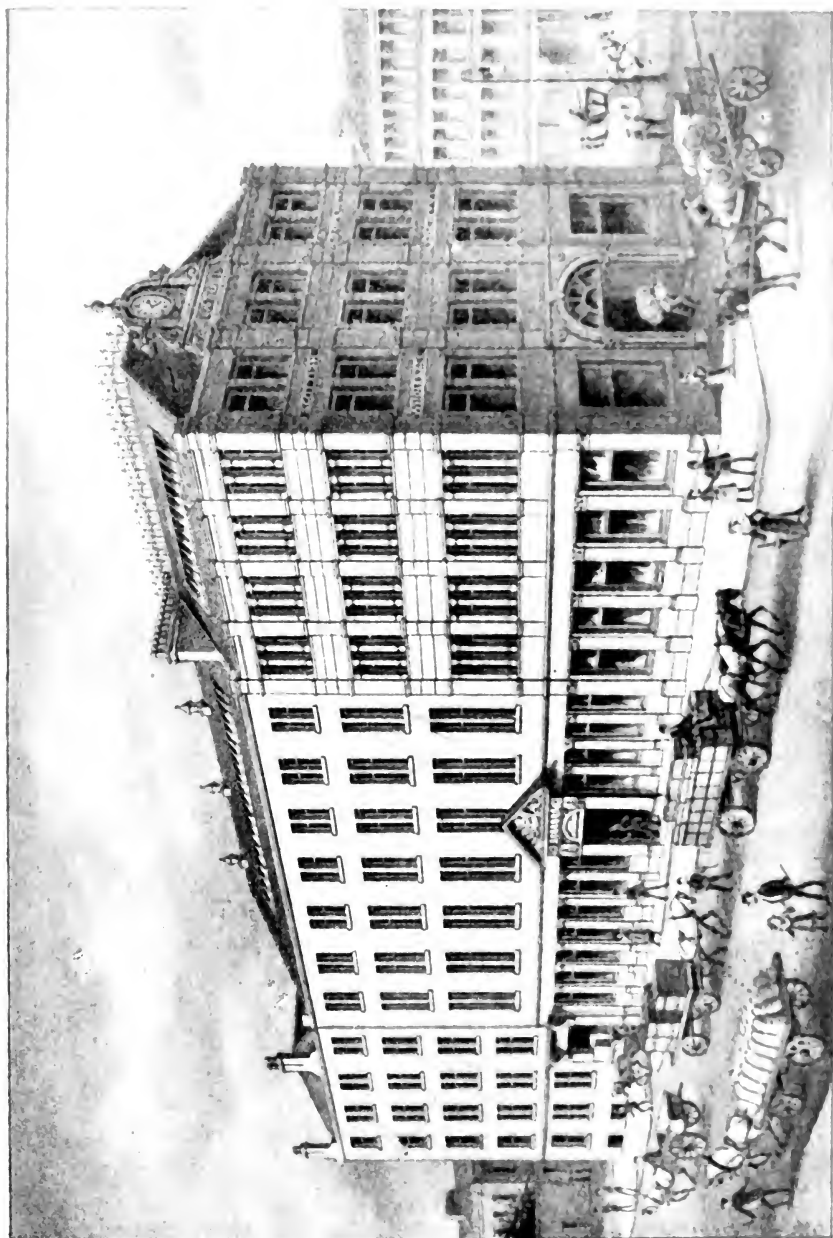
THIRTY-EIGHT YEARS' WHOLESALE DISTRIBUTION IN SCOTLAND.

COMMENCED SEPTEMBER, 1868.

YEARS.	CAPITAL.	SALES.	PROFITS.
	£	£	£
1868, 13 weeks.....	1,795	9,697	48
1869, 52 "	5,175	81,094	1,304
1870, 50 "	12,543	105,249	2,419
1871, 52 "	18,009	162,658	4,131
1872, 52 "	30,931	262,530	5,435
1873, 52 "	50,433	384,489	7,446
1874, 52 "	48,982	409,947	7,553
1875, 52 "	56,751	430,169	8,233
1876, 51 "	67,219	457,529	8,836
1877, 52 "	72,568	589,221	10,925
1878, 52 "	83,174	600,590	11,969
1879, 52 "	93,077	630,097	14,989
1880, 52 "	110,179	845,221	21,685
1881, 54 "	135,713	986,646	23,981
1882, 52 "	169,429	1,100,588	23,220
1883, 52 "	195,396	1,253,154	28,366
1884, 52 "	244,186	1,300,331	29,435
1885, 52 "	288,946	1,438,220	39,641
1886, 60 "	333,653	1,857,152	50,392
1887, 53 "	367,309	1,810,015	47,278
1888, 52 "	409,668	1,963,853	53,538
1889, 52 "	480,622	2,273,782	61,756
1890, 52 "	575,322	2,475,601	76,545
1891, 52 "	671,108	2,828,036	89,090
1892, 53 "	778,494	3,104,768	96,027
1893, 52 "	869,756	3,135,562	89,116
1894, 52 "	940,835	3,056,582	88,452
1895, 52 "	1,134,269	3,449,461	132,374
1896, 52 "	1,237,317	3,822,580	174,982
1897, 52 "	1,286,624	4,405,854	156,341
1898, 53 "	1,333,078	4,692,330	165,580
1899, 52 "	1,457,645	5,014,189	213,596
1900, 52 "	1,676,765	5,463,631	222,366
1901, 52 "	1,929,113	5,700,743	231,686
1902, 52 "	2,125,133	6,059,119	239,001
1903, 52 "	2,314,955	6,395,487	239,322
1904, 53 "	2,500,063	6,801,272	269,601
1905, 52 "	2,780,729	6,939,738	250,680
1906, 26 "	2,905,651	3,505,859	142,983
TOTALS	£2,905,651	£95,803,044	£3,340,337



Registered Office and Furniture Warehouse, 95 Morrison Street, Glasgow

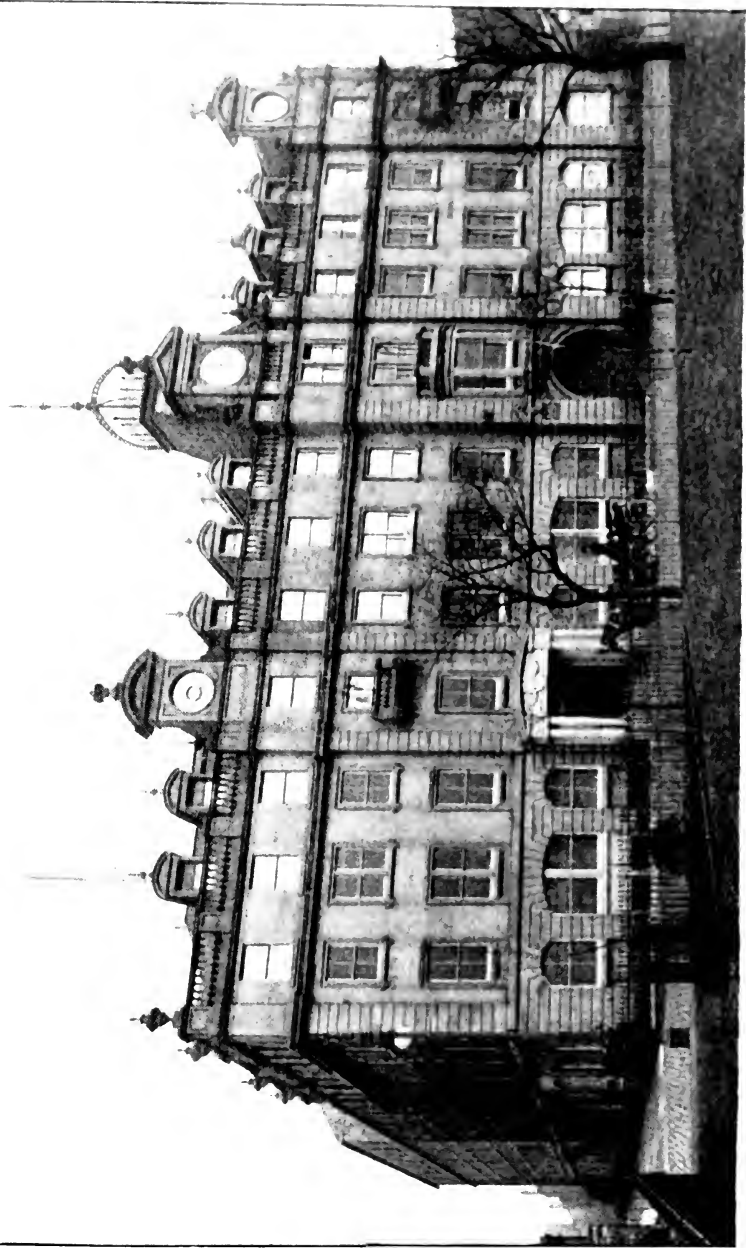


Grocery and Provision Warehouse, 119 Paisley Road, Glasgow

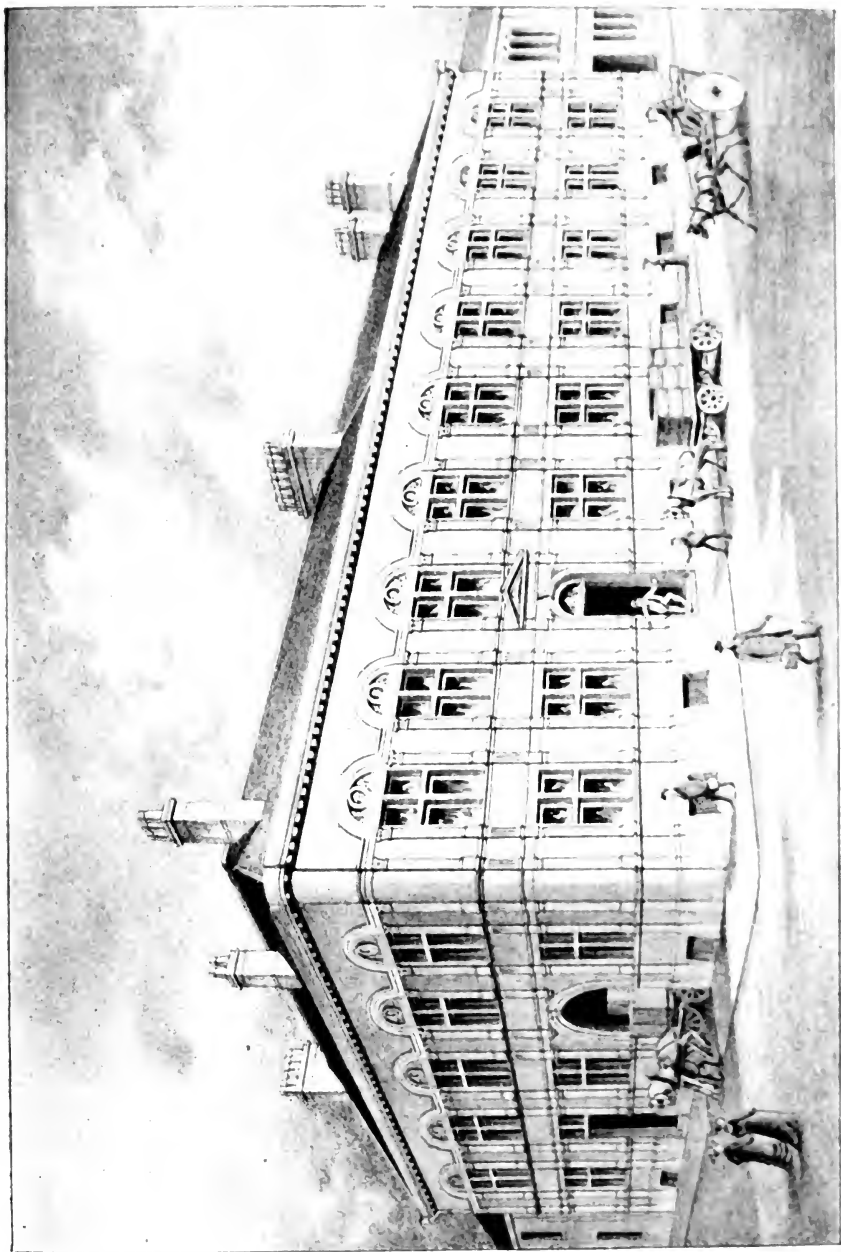




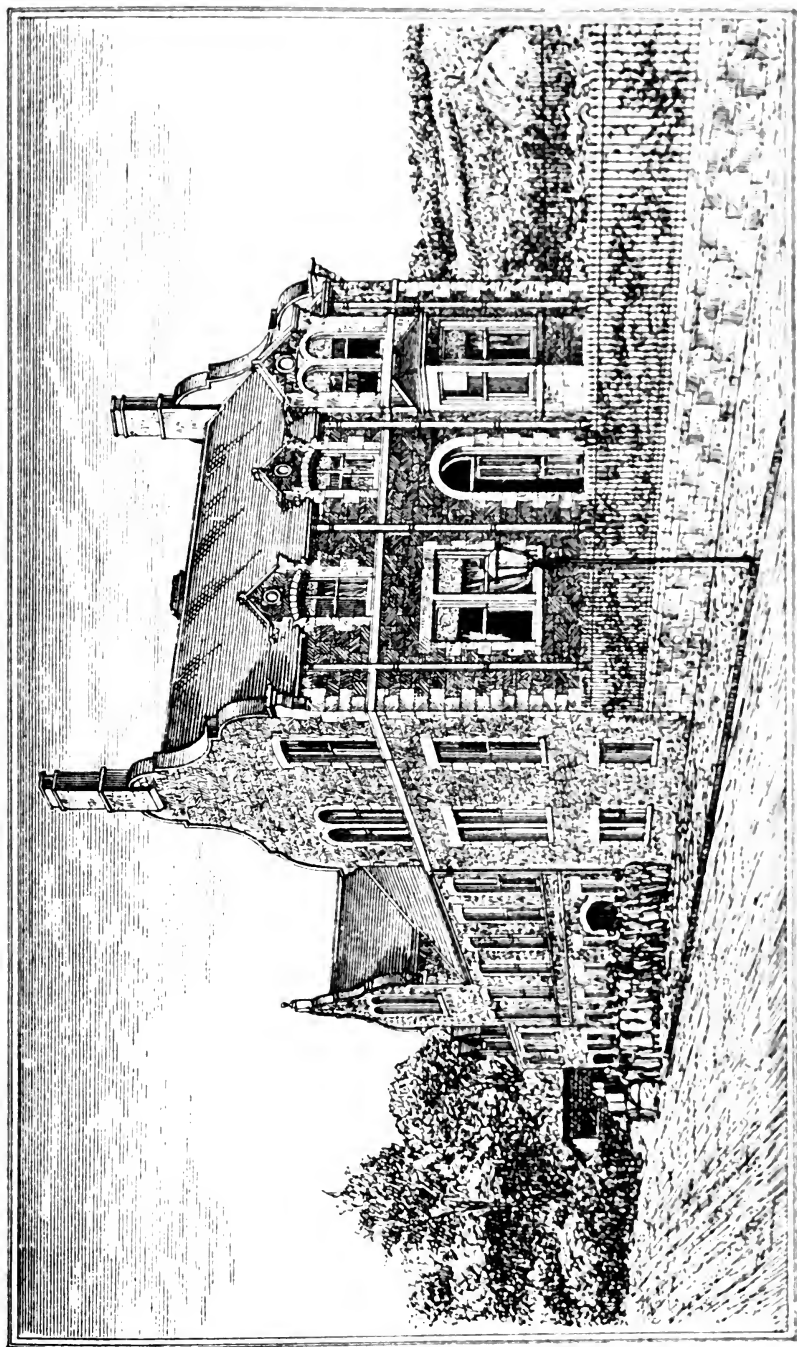
Grocery, etc., Crookston Street, Glasgow.



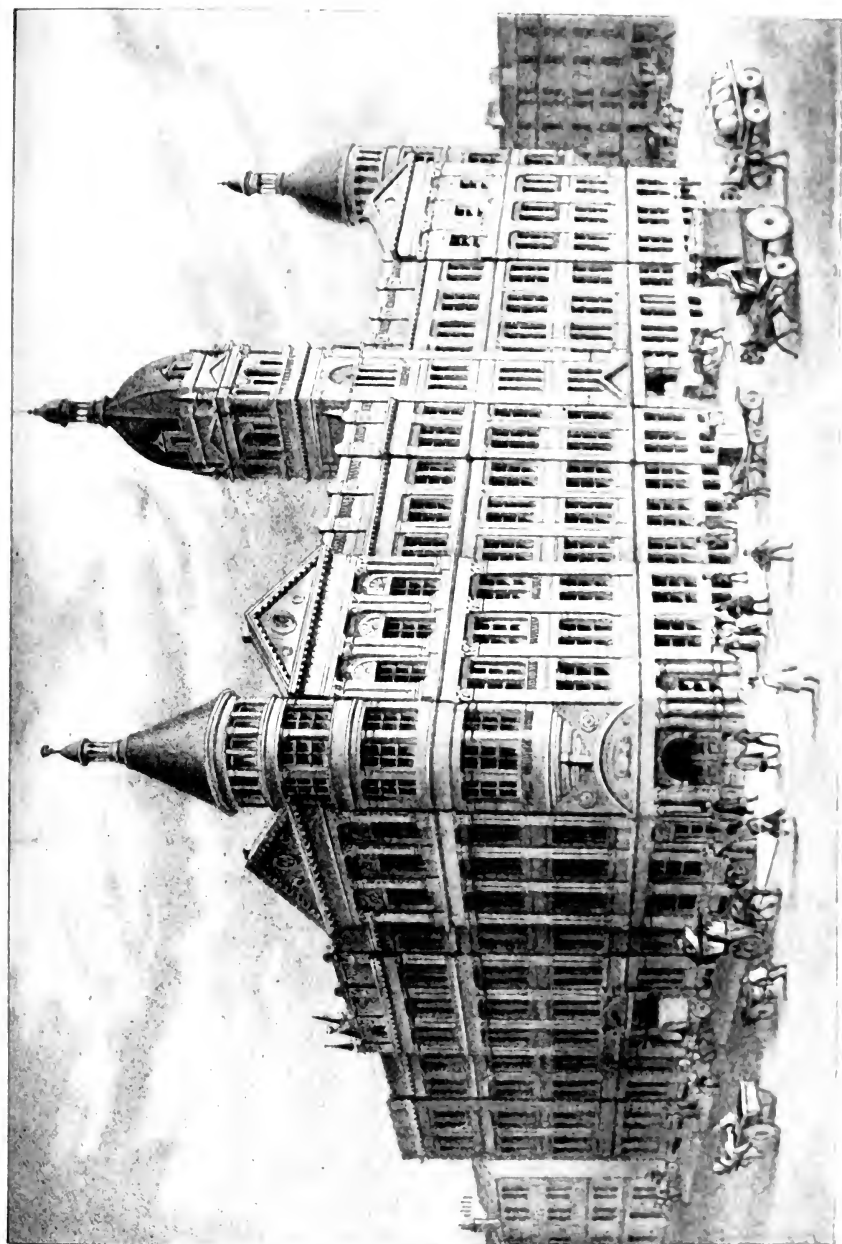
Leith Grocery and Provision Warehouse, Links Place.



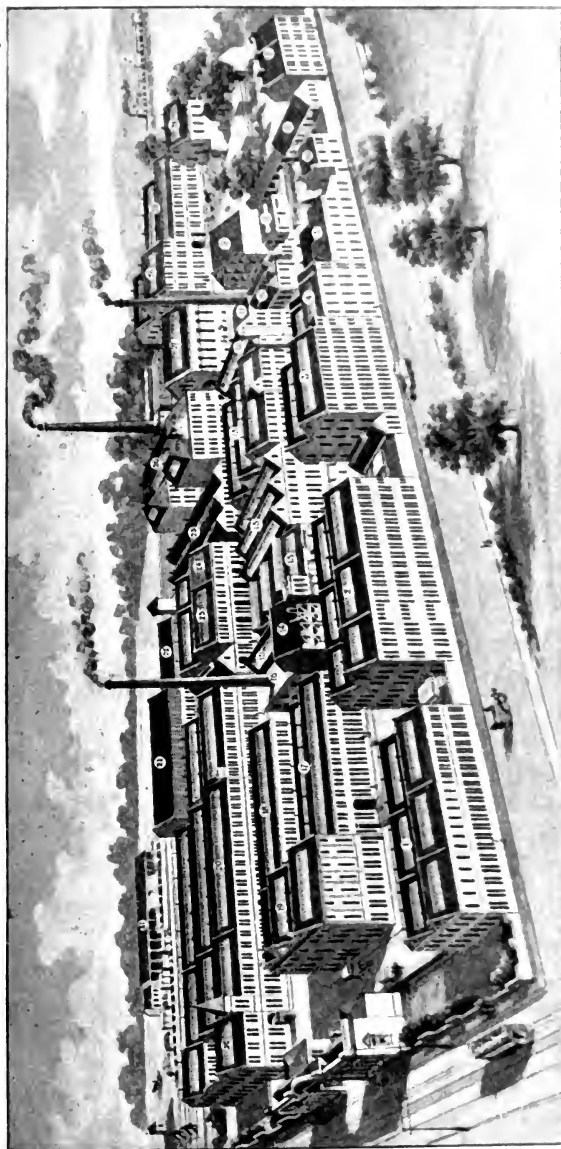
Kilmarlock Grocery and Provision Warehouse, Grange Place



Enniskillen Depot Butter, Eggs, and Bacon.

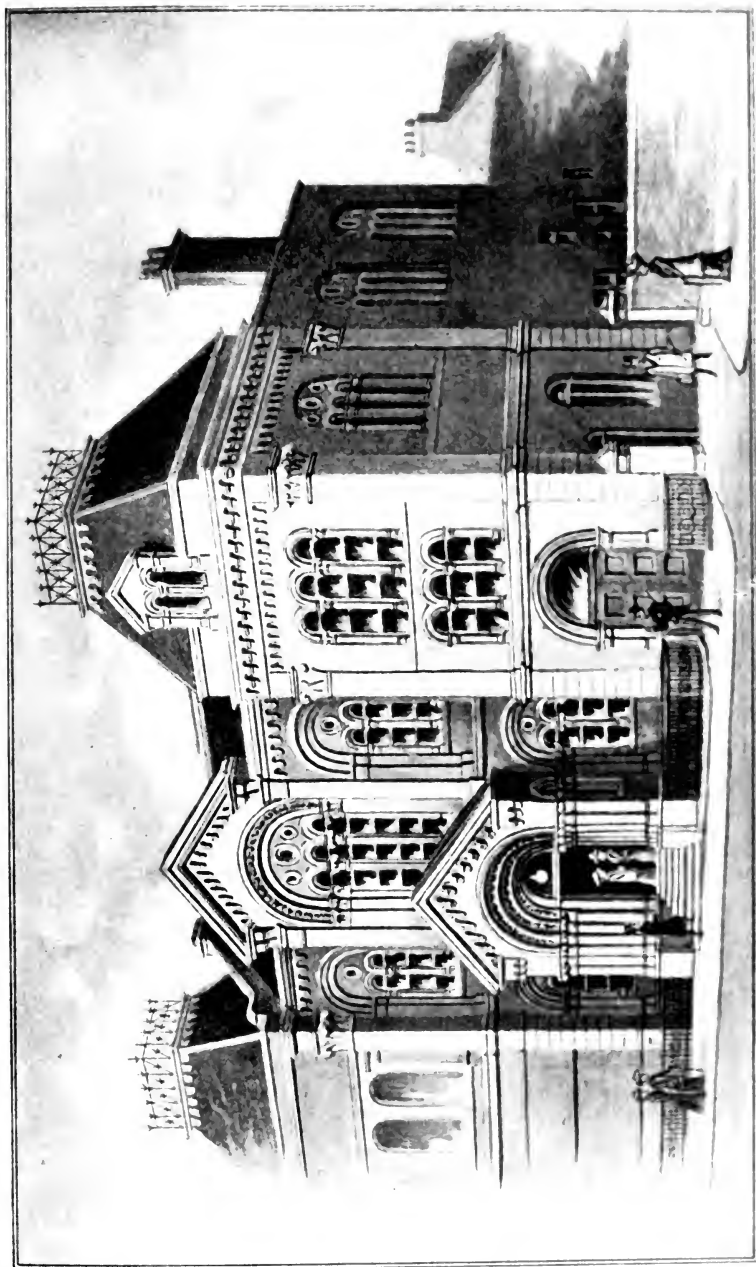


Drapery Warehouse, Wallace Street, Glasgow.

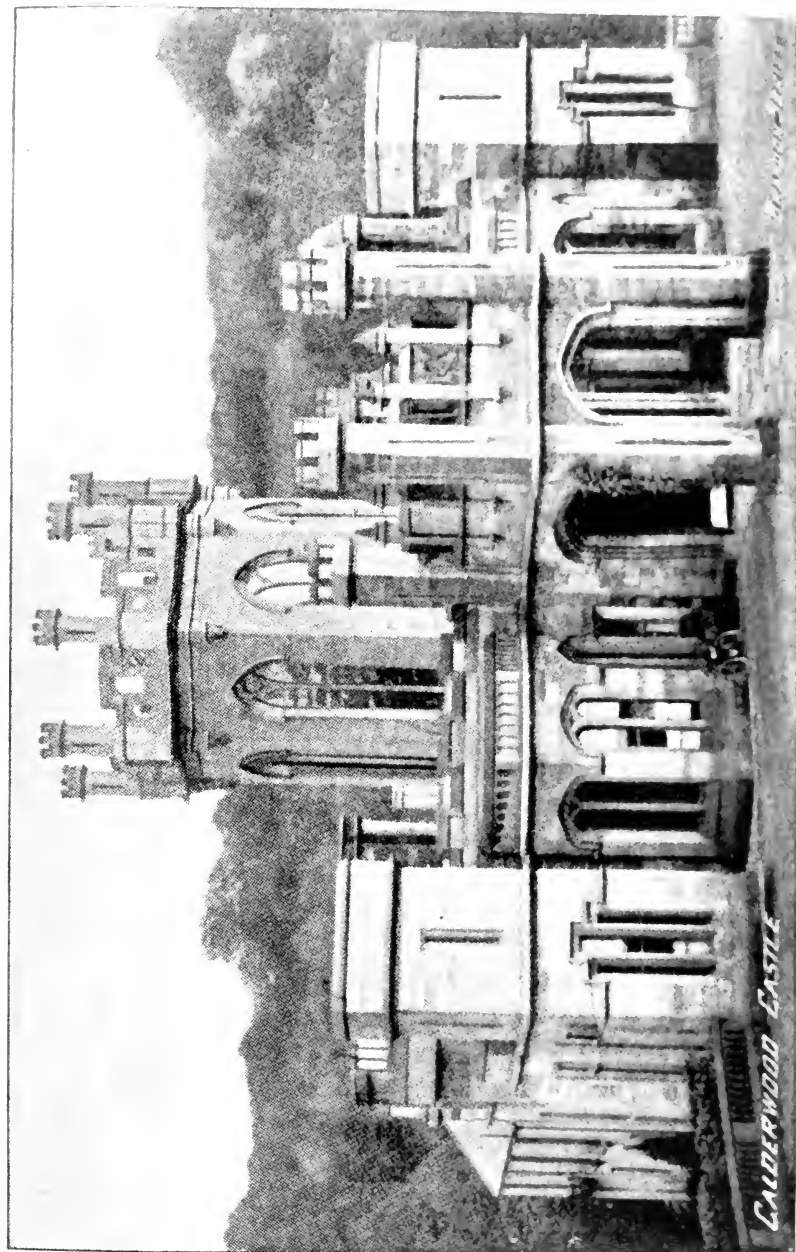


Productive Works, S.C.W.S., Shieldhall, Govan.

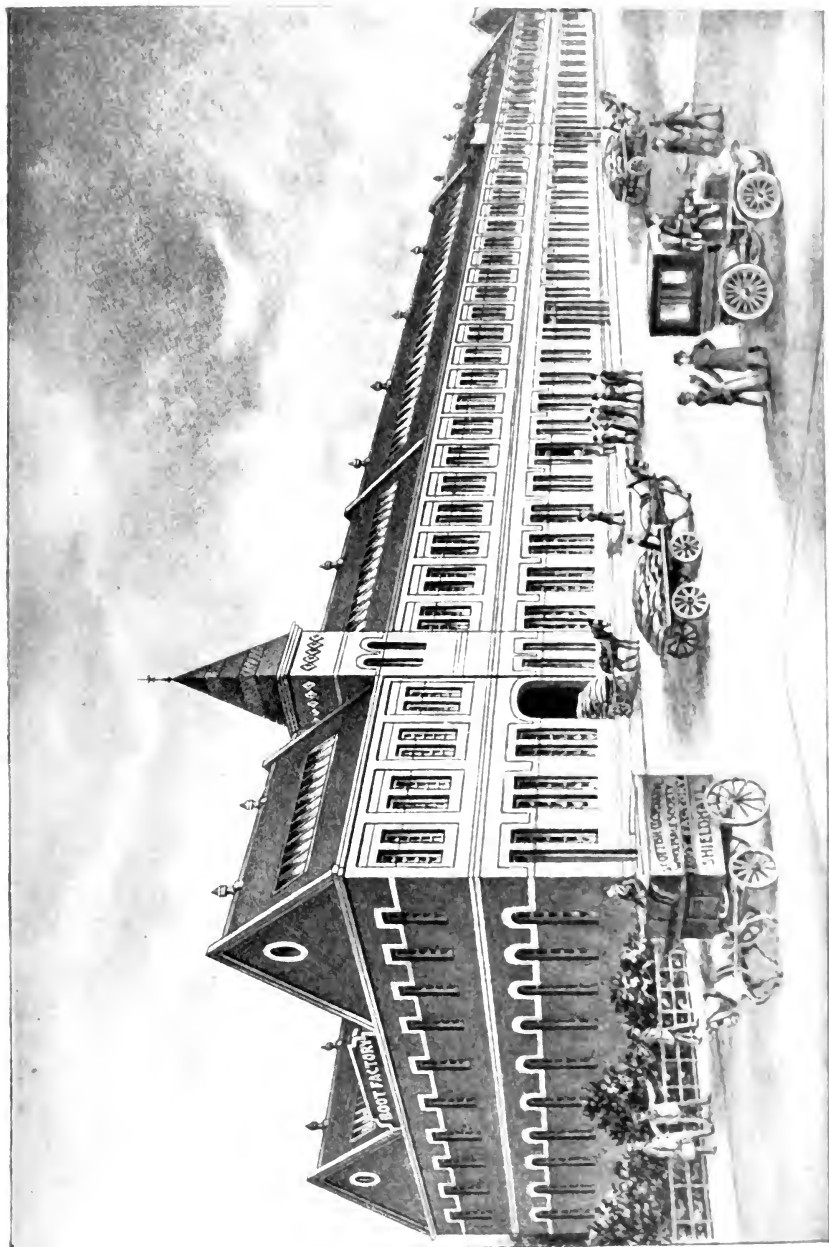
- | | | | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. PRINTING DEPARTMENT. | 7. WORKMEN'S DWELLINGS. | 13. PRESERVE WORKS. | 19. DYEING ROOMS, ETC. | 25. PAINTS & OILS. |
| 2. CABINET FACTORY. | 8. COOPERAGE. | 14. WOOD SHED. | 20. BEST FACTORY. | 26. COAL & IRON. |
| 3. HONEY FACTORY. | 9. TIMBER STORE. | 15. ENGINE ROOM. | 21. CURRING WORKS. | 27. LATERNS. |
| 4. COFFEE ESSENCE. | 10. BLACKSMITH'S FORGE. | 16. BOILER ROOM. | 22. TANNERY. | 28. TAILOR FACTORY. |
| 5. BRUSH FACTORY. | 11. BOILER SHED. | 17. TAILORING FACTORY. | 23. CONFECTIONERY WORK. | 29. SHOE FACTORY. |
| 6. JOINERS' WORKSHOP. | 12. MECHANICAL, TINWARE. | 18. ARTIZAN CLOTHING. | 24. PICKED WORKS. | 30. PAINTS & OILS. |



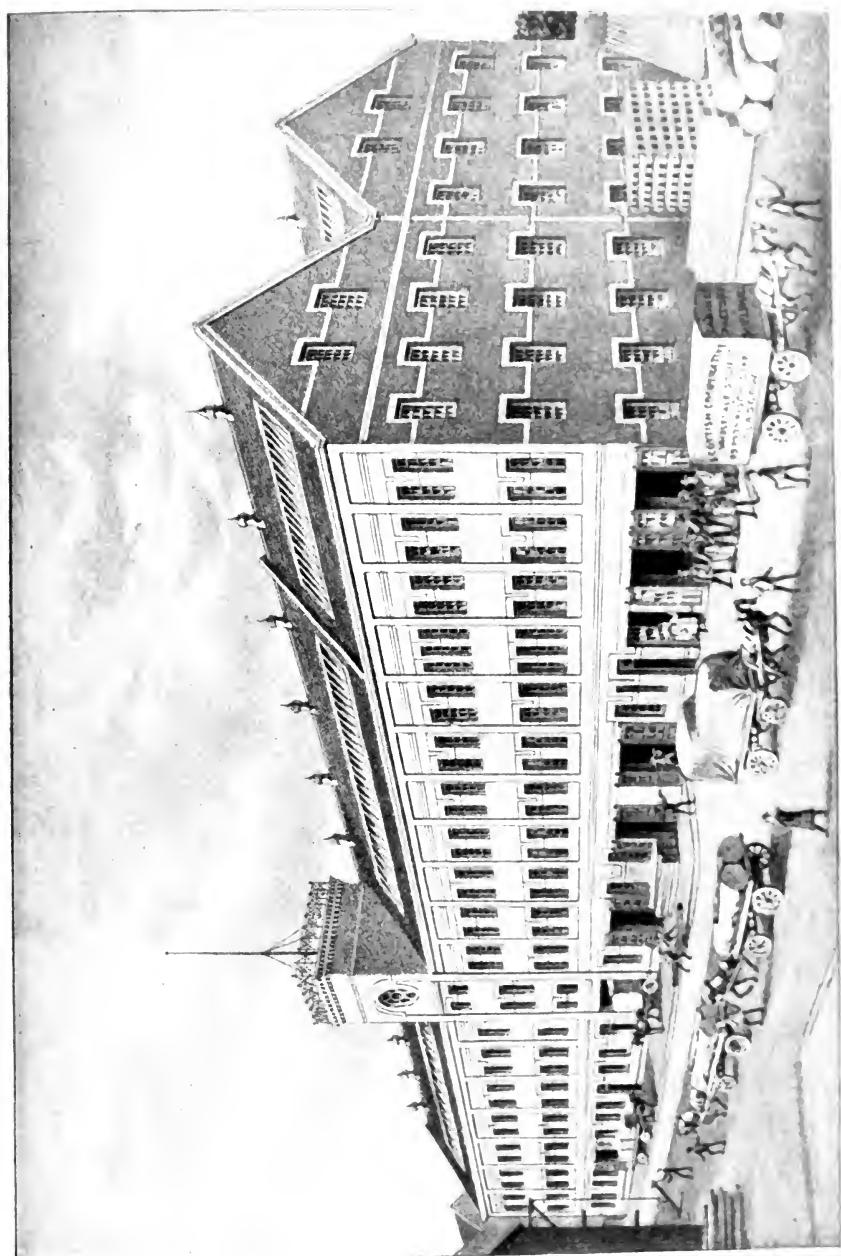
Chambers Street, Edinburgh.



Calderwood Castle and Estate



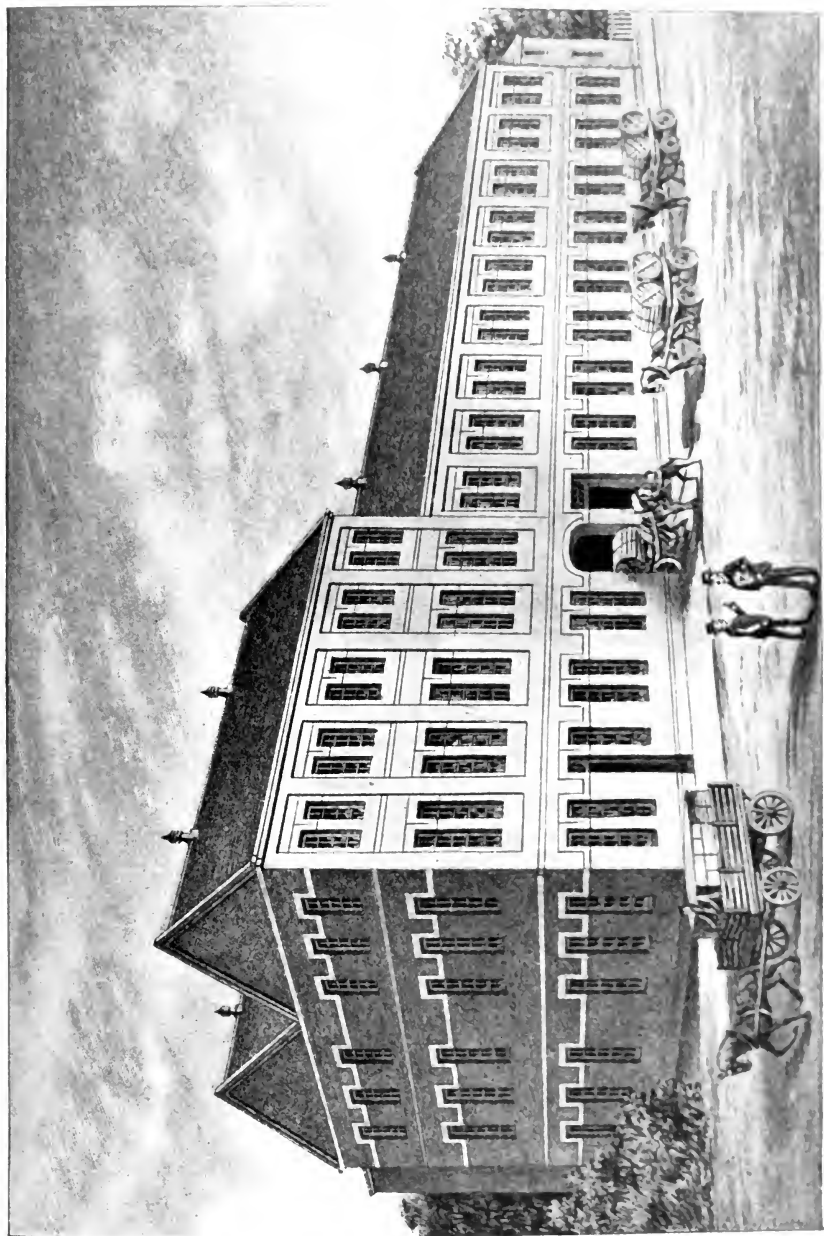
Boot Factory, Shredhall



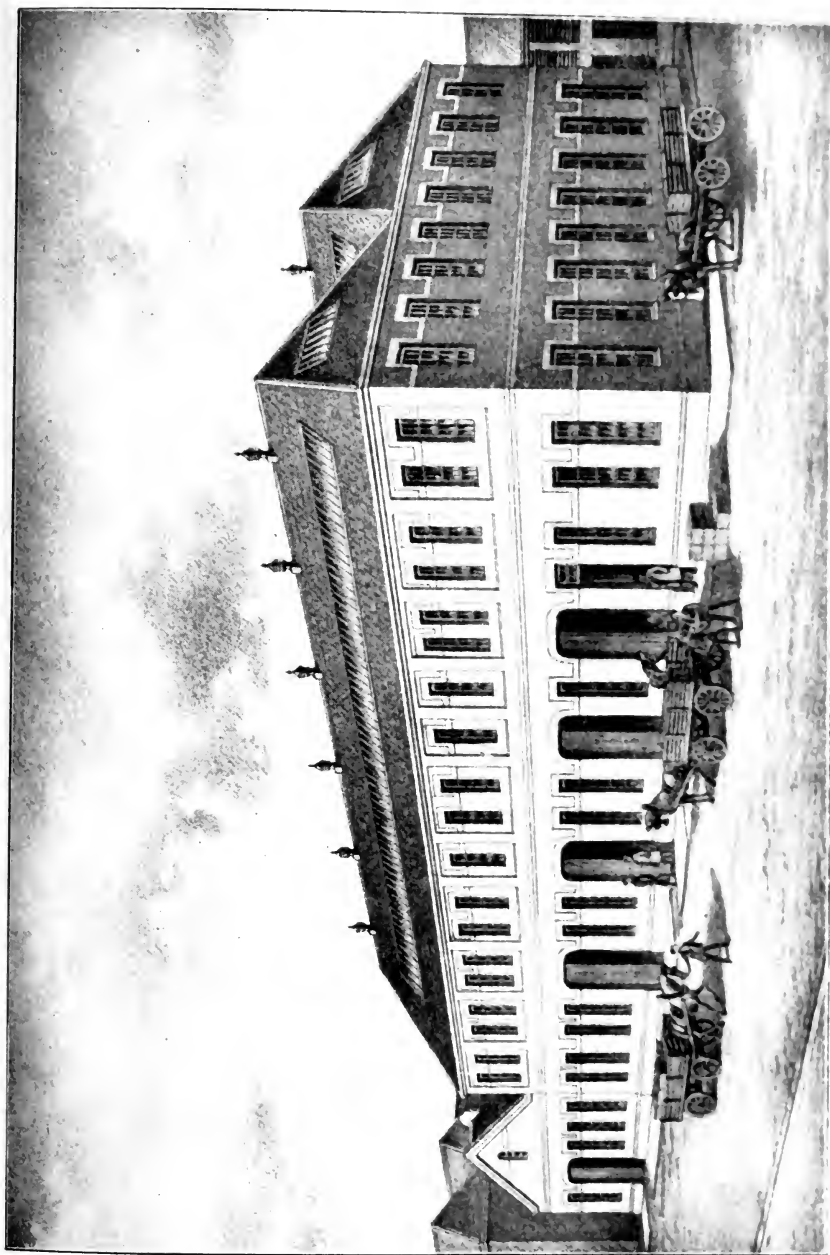
Cabinet Factory, Shieldhall.



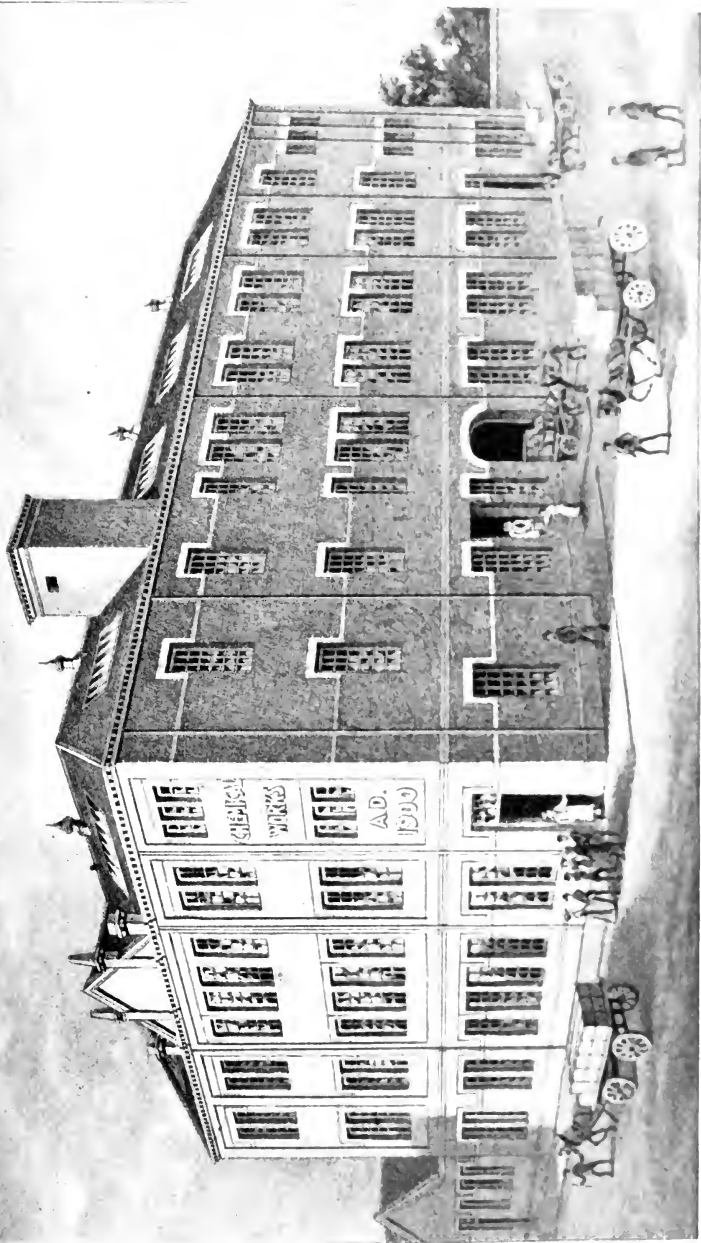
Printing Department. Sheet 134.



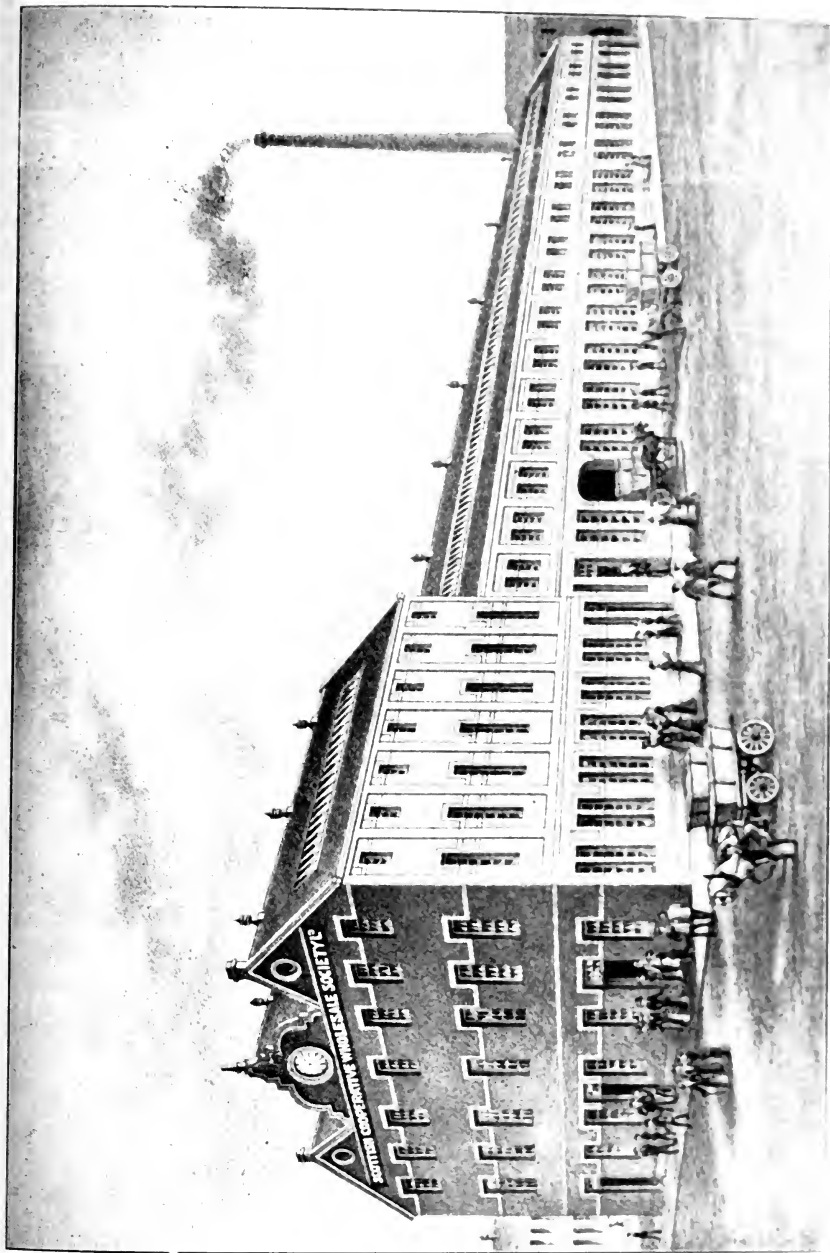
Tobacco Factory, Shieldhall.



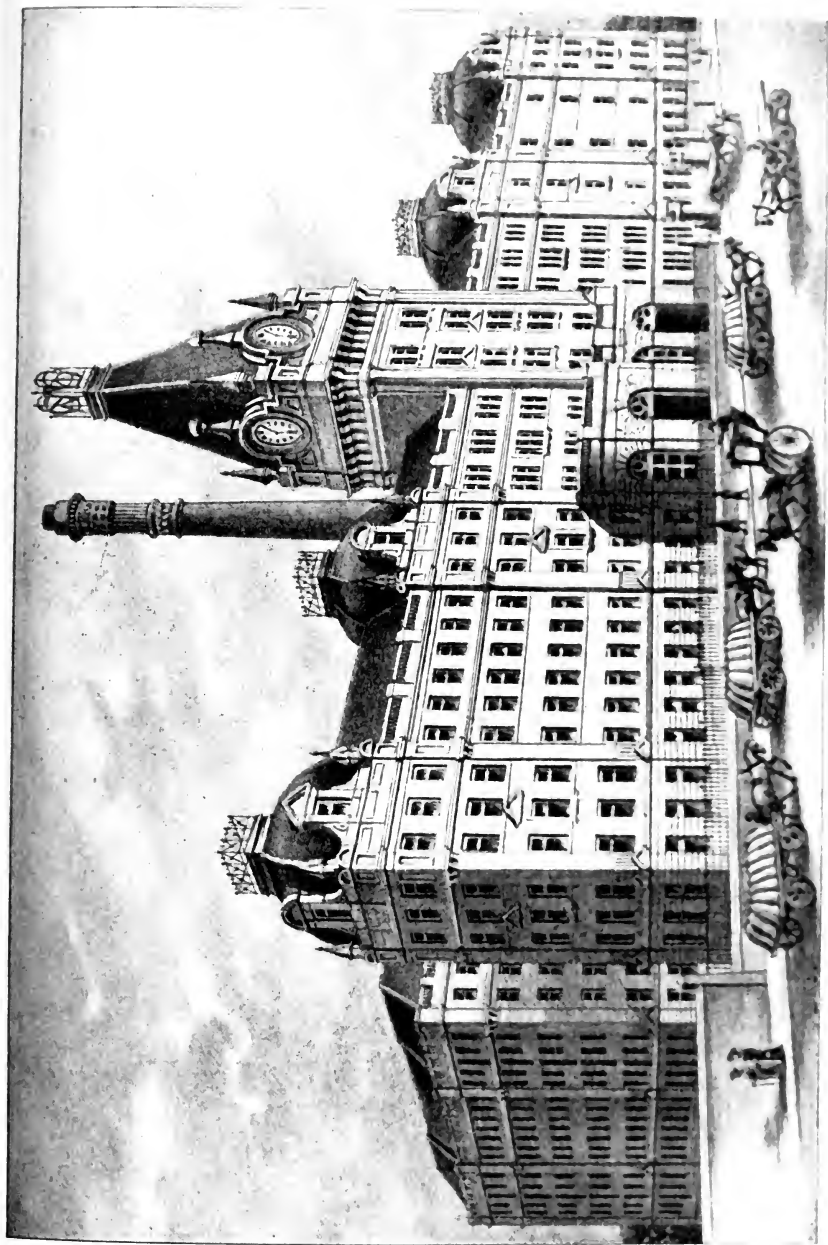
Confectionery Department, Sheffield.



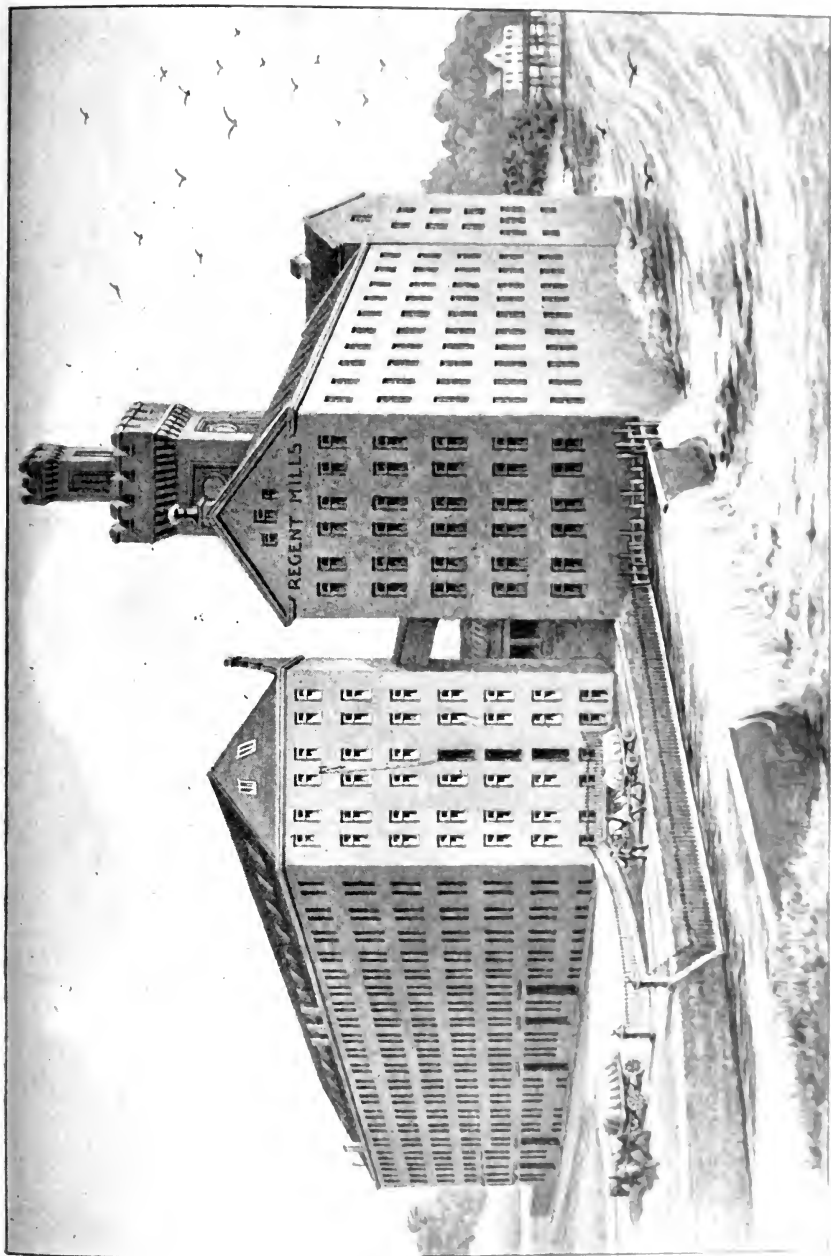
Chemical Department, Sheffield.



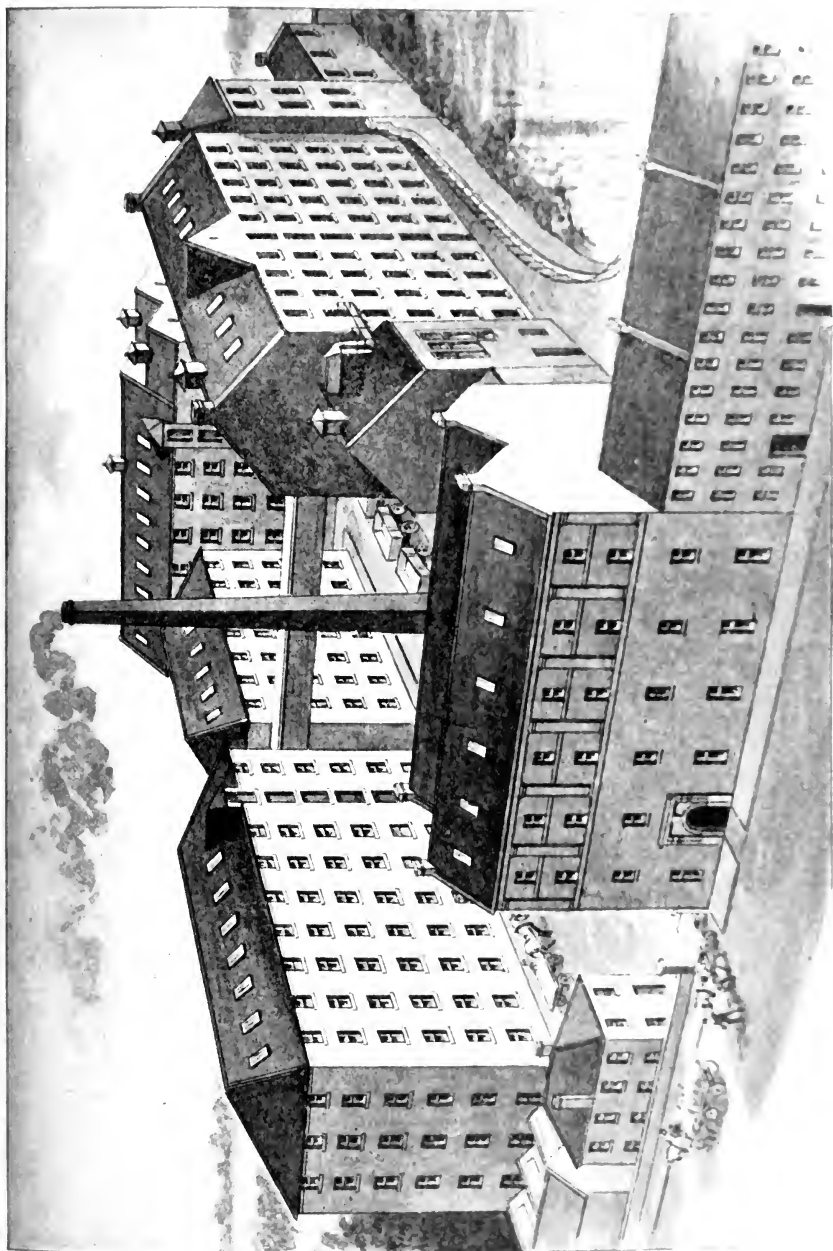
Dining Rooms and Readymade Clothing Factory, Glasgow.

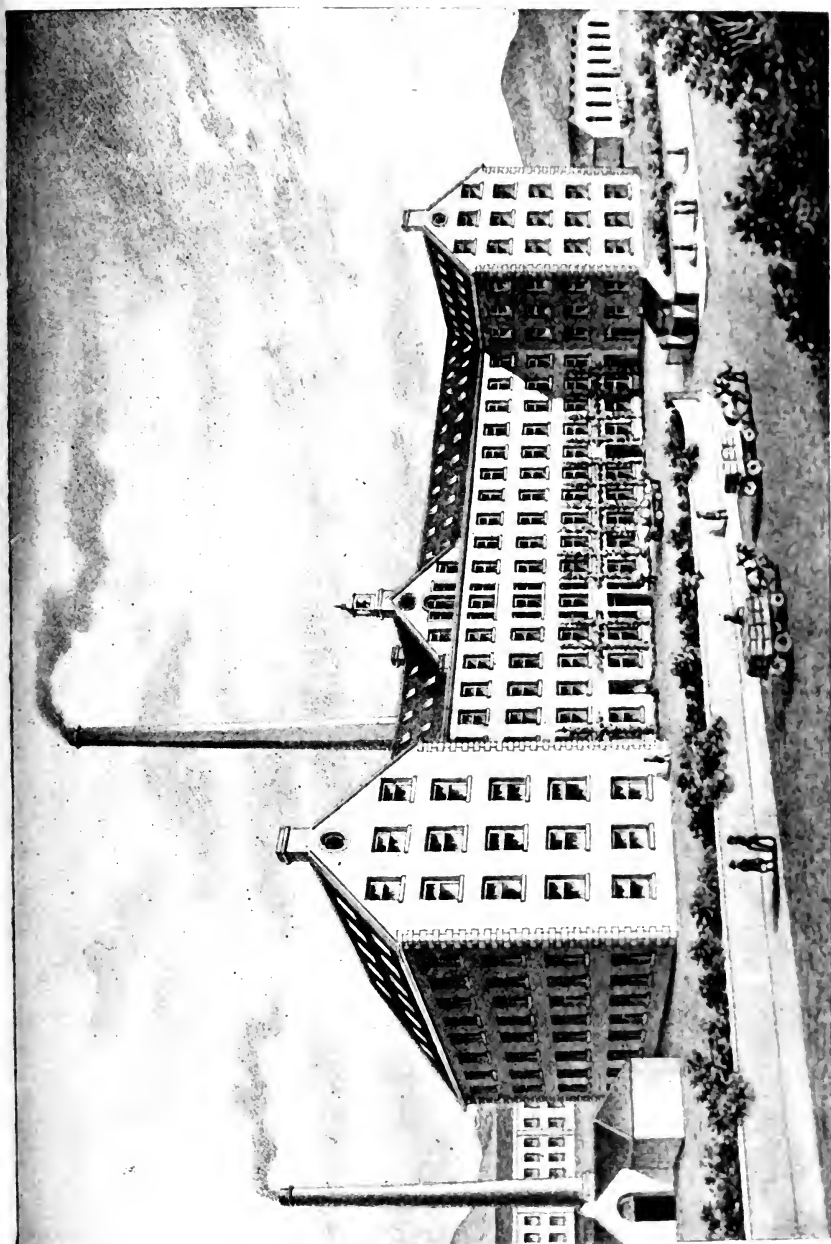


Chancelot Roller Flour Mills, Edinburgh.

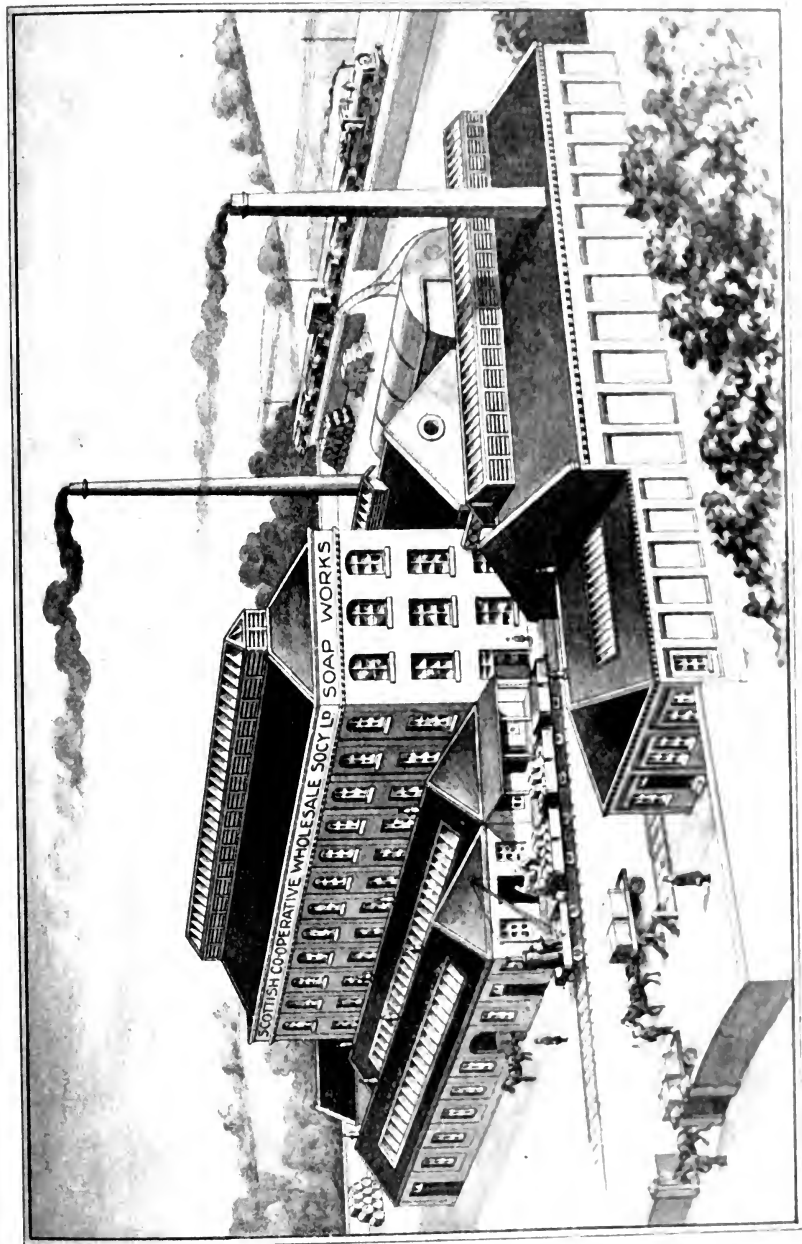


Regent Paper Flour Mills, Glasgow

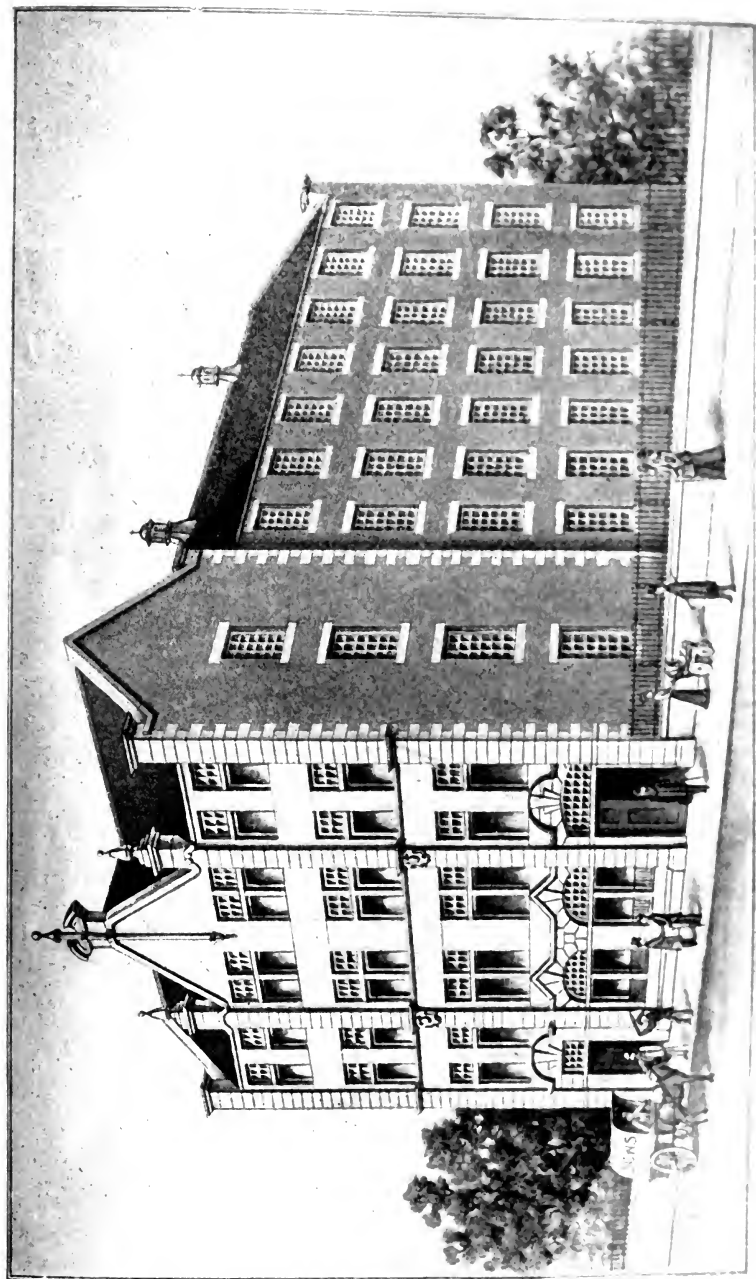




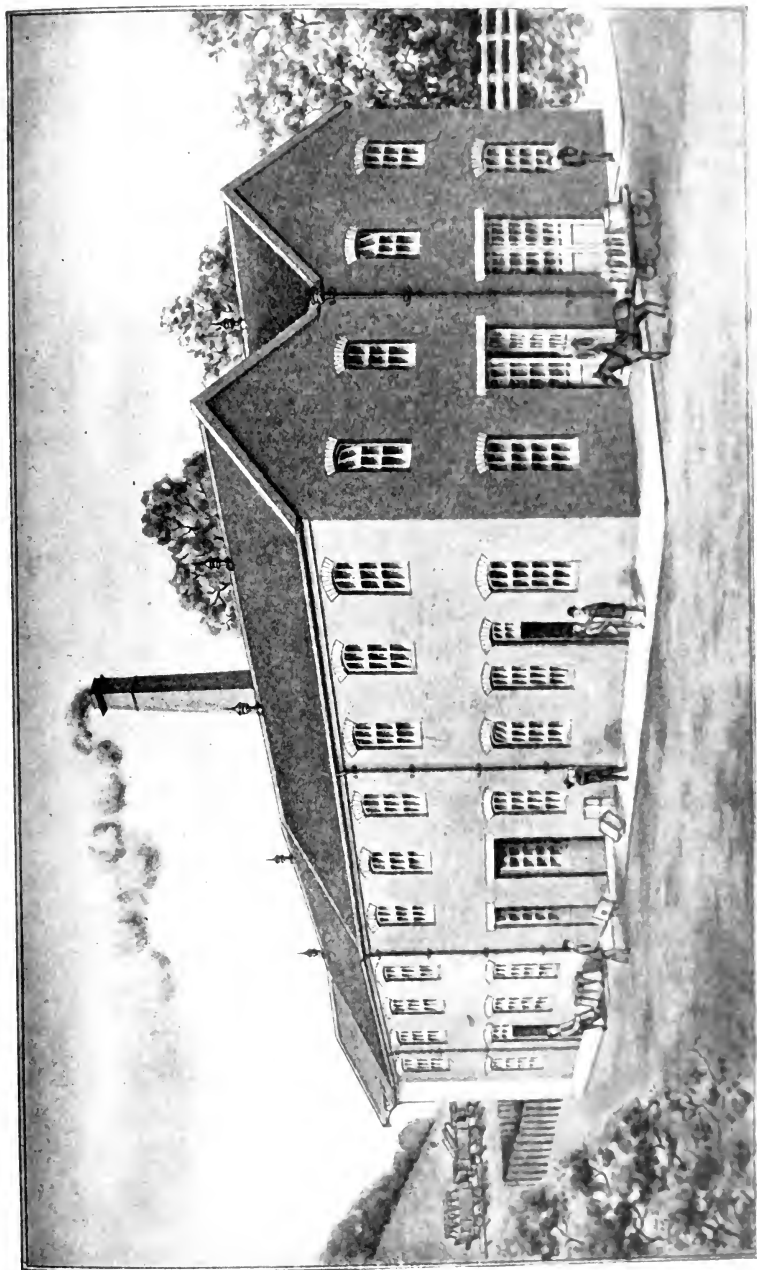
Ettrick Tweed Mills, Selkirk.



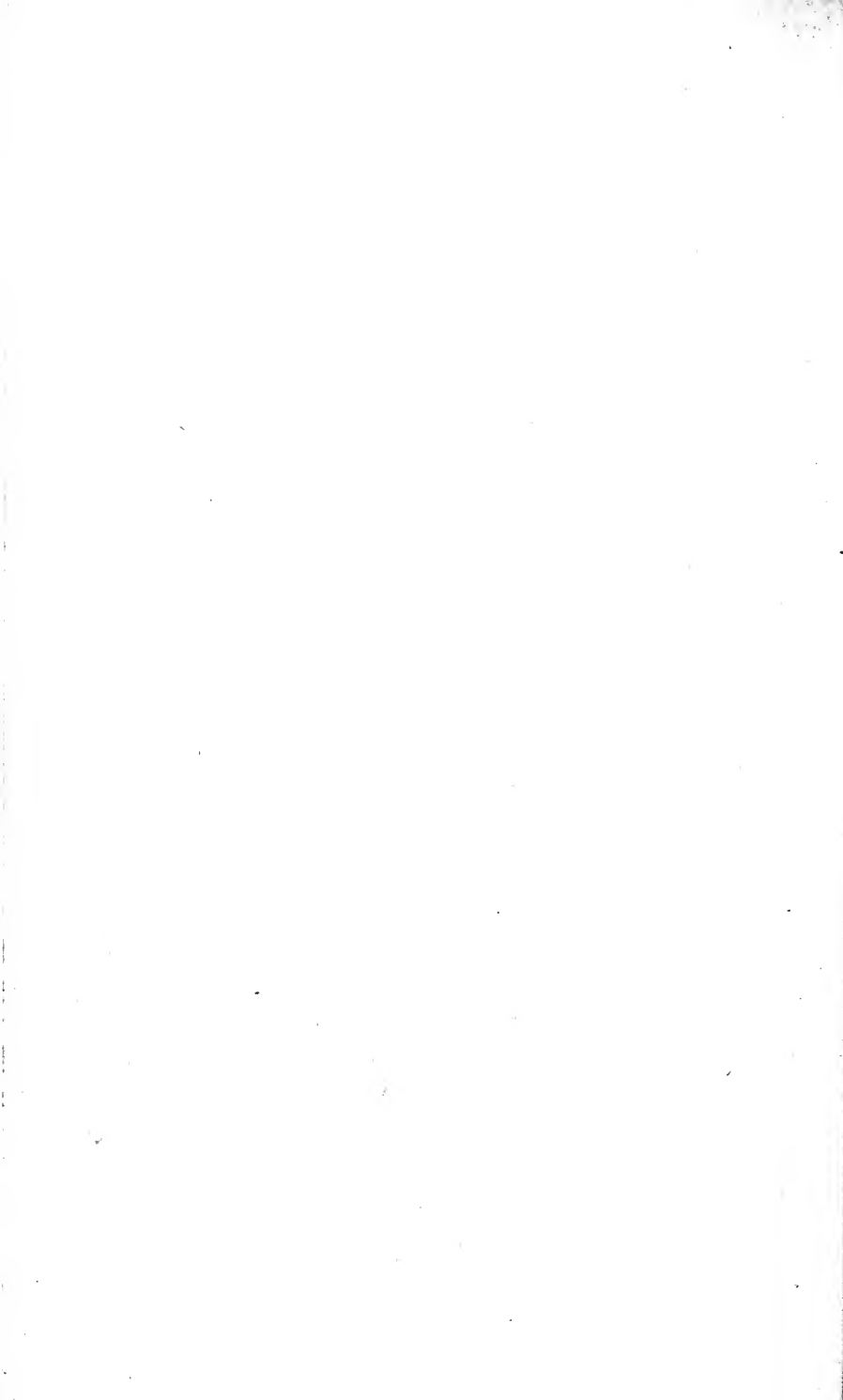
Soap Works, Grangemouth.



Dress Shirt Factory, Lehigh



Bladnoch Creamery, Wigtownshire



THE SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

Enrolled 20th April, 1868, under the provisions of the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 20th August, 1867, 30 and 31 Vict., cap. 117, sec. 4.

Business Commenced 5th September, 1868.

REGISTERED OFFICE, FURNITURE, & STATIONERY WAREHOUSE:
MORRISON STREET, GLASGOW.

GROCERY AND PROVISION WAREHOUSES:
PAISLEY ROAD, CROOKSTON AND CLARENCE STREETS,
GLASGOW.

DRAPERY WAREHOUSE:
DUNDAS, WALLACE, AND PATERSON STREETS, GLASGOW.

BOOT AND SHOE WAREHOUSE:
DUNDAS STREET, GLASGOW.

SHIRT, TAILORING, WATERPROOF, AND AERATED WATER
FACORIES:
PATERSON STREET, GLASGOW.

MANTLE AND UMBRELLA FACORIES:
DUNDAS STREET, GLASGOW.

HAM-CURING, SAUSAGE FACTORY, AND CARTWRIGHT
DEPARTMENT:
PARK STREET, K.P., GLASGOW.

FACTORIES FOR BOOTS AND SHOES, CLOTHING, FURNITURE AND
BRUSHES, PRINTING, PRESERVES AND CONFECTIONS, COFFEE
ESSENCE, TOBACCO, PICKLES, AND TINWARE:
SHIELDHALL, NEAR GOVAN, GLASGOW.

Branches.

LINKS PLACE, LEITH.

GRANGE PLACE, KILMARNOCK.

ALLAN STREET, DUNDEE.

HENRY STREET, ENNISKILLEN, IRELAND.

FURNITURE WAREHOUSE, DRAPERY & BOOT SAMPLE
ROOM—CHAMBERS STREET, EDINBURGH.

CHANCELOT FLOUR MILLS—EDINBURGH.

JUNCTION FLOUR AND OATMEAL MILLS—LEITH.

REGENT FLOUR MILLS—GLASGOW.

SOAP WORKS—GRANGEMOUTH.

ETTRICK TWEED MILLS—SELKIRK.

DRESS SHIRT FACTORY—LEITH.

CHAPPELLFIELD LAUNDRY—BARRHEAD.

FISH-CURING WORKS—ABERDEEN.

CREAMERIES :

ENNISKILLEN, BELNALECK, GOLA, FLORENCE COURT,
S. BRIDGE, GARDNER'S CROSS, BLACK LION, IRELAND;
BLADNOCH AND WHITHORN, WIGTOWNSHIRE, N.B.

CALDERWOOD ESTATE, LANARKSHIRE.

THE ENGLISH AND SCOTTISH WHOLESALE SOCIETIES' CO-PARTNERY
Cocoa Works: LUTON, BEDFORDSHIRE.

TEA AND COFFEE DEPARTMENT : LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

TEA ESTATES: NUGAWELLA AND WELIGANGA, CEYLON.

Bankers:

THE UNION BANK OF SCOTLAND LIMITED.

Head Offices :

GLASGOW :

INGRAM STREET.

General Manager :

ROBERT BLYTH.

LONDON :

62, CORNHILL, E.C.

Manager :

JOHN A. FRADGLEY.

EDINBURGH :

GEORGE STREET.

Manager :

JAMES MORTON.

General Committee.

President :

Mr. WILLIAM MAXWELL, "Caerlaverock," Ardbeg, Rothesay.

Secretary :

Mr. ANDREW MILLER, "Ballangiech," Tillicoultry.

Directors :

Mr. DANIEL THOMSON .. "Rolland House," Dunfermline.
 Mr. JOHN PEARSON..... "Beechdale," Fenton Street, Alloa.
 Mr. ISAAC Mc.DONALD .. 7, Knoxland Street, Dumbarton.
 Mr. JOHN ARTHUR 39, High Street, Paisley.
 Mr. THOMAS C. Mc.NAB .. "Warrendene," Dudley Crescent, Leith.
 Mr. HENRY MURPHY.... 2, Westport, Lanark.
 Mr. JOHN STEVENSON .. 5, W. Fullarton Street, Kilmarnock.
 Mr. PETER GLASSE..... 185, Byres Road, Glasgow.
 Mr. THOMAS LITTLE 264, Scott Street, Galashiels.
 Mr. ROBERT STEWART .. 11, Great Wellington Street, Glasgow.

Sub-Committees :

(1) FINANCE AND PROPERTY—

Messrs. PEARSON, Mc.DONALD, *MAXWELL, and ARTHUR.
 Conveners: Mr. PEARSON (Finance). Mr. Mc.DONALD (Property).

(2) GROCERY: DISTRIBUTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE—

Messrs. MURPHY, GLASSE, MILLER, and STEVENSON.
 Conveners: Mr. MURPHY (Distributive). Mr. GLASSE (Productive).

(3) DRAPERY AND FURNISHING: DISTRIBUTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE—

Messrs. STEWART, THOMSON, LITTLE, and Mc.NAB.
 Conveners: Mr. STEWART (Distributive). Mr. THOMSON (Productive).
 *Mr. MAXWELL is *ex officio* a member of the other Committees.

Auditors :

Mr. JNO. MILLEN, Rutherglen. | Mr. ROBT. J. SMITH, C.A., Glasgow.
 Mr. WM. H. JACK, F.S.A.A., Glasgow.

Officers of the Society.

Accountant: Mr. ROBERT MACINTOSH, Glasgow.

Cashier: Mr. ALLAN GRAY, Glasgow.

Buyers, &c.:

Grocery and Provisions.....	GLASGOW.....	Mr. E. ROSS.
" "	"	Mr. JOHN Mc.DONALD.
" "	"	Mr. JOHN JAMIESON.
" "	"	Mr. M. Mc.CALLUM.
" "	LEITH	Mr. PETER ROBERTSON.
" "	"	Mr. WILLIAM Mc.LAREN.
" "	KILMARNOCK ..	Mr. DAVID CALDWELL.
" "	"	Mr. HUGH CAMPBELL.
" "	DUNDEE	Mr. JOHN BARROWMAN.
Potato Department	GLASGOW.....	Mr. JOHN Mc.INTYRE.
" "	LEITH	Mr. J. H. MORRISON.
Cattle.....	GLASGOW.....	Mr. WILLIAM DUNCAN.
"	IRELAND	Mr. J. H. TAYLOR.
Provisions.....	ENNISKILLEN ..	Mr. WILLIAM WHYTE.
Preserve Works	GLASGOW.....	Mr. N. ANDERSON.
Tobacco Factory.....	"	Mr. THOMAS HARKNESS.
Chancelot, Junction, & Regent {	"	Mr. WM. F. STEWART.
	"	Mr. JAMES TIERNEY.
	EDINBURGH ..	Mr. JOHN PAISLEY.
Flour Mills.....		
Soap Works	GRANGEMOUTH ..	Mr. H. C. GREEN.
Printing & Stationery-Dept....	GLASGOW.....	Mr. DAVID CAMPBELL.
Drapery Department	"	Mr. DAVID GARDINER.
" " Assistant..	"	Mr. J. Mc.GILCHRIST.
" " " ..	"	Mr. WM. ALLAN.
Furniture Department	"	Mr. WILLIAM MILLER.
	Assistant	Mr. THOMAS FENWICK.
	EDINBURGH ..	Mr. GEO. CARSON.
Boot and Shoe Department ..	GLASGOW.....	Mr. ALBERT JOHNSON.
	Assistant	Mr. J. J. HORN.
Ettrick Tweed & Blanket Mills..	SELKIRK	Mr. ANDREW WESTLAND.
Building Department	GLASGOW.....	Mr. JAMES DAVIDSON.
Engineering Department	"	Mr. JAMES STEWART.
Carting Department	"	Mr. JAMES CALDWELL.
Coal Department	"	Mr. T. BURTON.
Fish Curing Department	ABERDEEN	Mr. W. C. STEPHEN.
Electrical Department	GLASGOW.....	Mr. A. R. TURNER.
Tea Department	LONDON	Mr. W. B. PRICE.
Cocoa Works	LUTON	Mr. E. J. STAFFORD.
Wheat Buying Depôt	WINNIPEG	Mr. GEO. FISHER.
	(CANADA)	

Officers of the Society—*continued.*

Travellers :

Grocery Department	GLASGOW.....	Mr. GEO. BLACKWOOD.
" "	"	Mr. JOHN KNOX.
" "	"	Mr. J. M. STEWART.
" "	LEITH	Mr. A. STODDART.
Flour Mills	EDINBURGH ..	Mr. WM. SMITH.
Drapery Department	GLASGOW.....	Mr. J. D. STEWART.
" "	"	Mr. JAMES HENRY.
" "	"	Mr. JOHN BOWMAN.
" "	"	Mr. ROBERT WOOD.
" "	EDINBURGH ..	Mr. GEORGE TAIT.
Ettrick Mills	GLASGOW.....	Mr. JAMES ALLAN.
Furniture Department	"	Mr. MATTHEW KERR.
Boot and Shoe Department	"	Mr. G. W. ROSS.
Soap Works.....	GRANGEMOUTH ..	Mr. JAMES JAMIESON.

Business Arrangements.

Registered Office :

MORRISON STREET, GLASGOW.

Branches :

LINKS PLACE, LEITH ; GRANGE PLACE, KILMARNOCK ;
 ALLAN STREET, DUNDEE ;
 HENRY STREET, ENNISKILLEN, IRELAND ;
 LEMAN STREET, LONDON, E.

Societies, to which our trade is strictly confined, desirous of opening an account with this Society, should forward a copy of their registered Rules and latest balance sheet ; or, if but recently started, a statement showing the number of members, value of shares, amount subscribed for and paid up, weekly turnover expected, and the amount of credit allowed, if any, per member in proportion to the capital paid up. Should these particulars be considered satisfactory, goods will be supplied on the following terms :—The *maximum credit allowed is fourteen days, and interest is charged quarterly on all in excess of this allowance at the rate of 2½ per cent. per annum*, but in cases where the debt exceeds one month's purchases 5 per cent. is charged.

Interest at the rate of 2½ per cent. per annum is allowed on prepaid accounts.

The Directors, by authority of the general meeting, are empowered to have the books of societies examined whose accounts are overdue, and to take the necessary steps to protect the other members of the federation.

Orders for goods should bear the price or brand of the article wanted, the mode of transit, and name of station to which the goods are to be sent. Orders for the different departments should be on separate slips. Goods not approved of must be returned at once and intact. No claim for breakage, short weight, &c., can be entertained unless made within six days after goods are received. Delay in delivery should be at once advised.

[SPECIMEN.]

WEEKLY STATEMENT OF ACCOUNT.

5TH WEEK.
73RD QUARTER.LEDGER FOLIO, 929.
119, PAISLEY ROAD,
GLASGOW, September 3rd, 1887.*The Grahamston and Bainsford Co-operative Society Limited.***Dr. To The Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited. Cr.**

GOODS.			CASH AND CREDITS.			
Date.	Amount of each Invoice.	Balance last Statement.	Date.	Cash.	Credit.	Totals.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Aug. 30..	0 4 3	698 7 2	Aug. 30..	0 5 0
" 30..	18 11 7	" 31..	1 0 0
" 30..	29 0 8	" 31..	0 12 9
" 30..	32 4 0	" 31..	0 12 10
" 30..	0 17 7	Sept. 1..	0 5 6
" 30..	4 10 0	" 1..	0 1 0
" 30..	4 4 0	" 1..	1 3 6
" 30..	3 2 6	" 1..	2 7 0
" 31..	0 6 6	" 2..	0 12 9
" 31..	0 8 3	" 2..	0 12 9
" 31..	0 10 10	" 2..	0 14 9
" 31..	0 8 3	" 2..	0 10 0
" 31..	1 5 0	" 3..	0 15 6
" 31..	0 10 11	" 3..	10 11 1
" 31..	59 16 9	" 3..	0 15 6
" 31..	0 11 3	" 3..	1 12 0
" 31..	7 3 5				22 11 11
Sept. 1..	2 10 6	" 2..	600 0 0	600 0 0
" 1..	4 17 6				
" 1..	0 15 2				
" 3..	0 6 6				
" 3..	0 9 2				
" 3..	17 10 0				
" 3..	0 18 0				
" 3..	3 10 6				
" 3..	5 13 8				
" 3..	12 11 1				
" 3..	4 18 7				
" 3..	5 3 6				
" 3..	0 12 9				
" 3..	0 1 10				
" 3..	2 14 9				
" 3..	1 8 6				
" 3..	27 12 8				
	To balance	255 10 5			By balance	331 5 8
	£ 953 17 7			£ 953 17 7

If the above Statement differs from your Books, we shall be glad if you will point out the difference at once.

Terms of Membership.

EXCERPT FROM SOCIETY'S RULES.

ADMISSION OF MEMBERS AND APPLICATION FOR SHARES.

The Society shall consist of such Co-operative Societies registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1893, or any employé of this Society who is over twenty-one years of age, as have been admitted by the Committee, subject to the approval of a general meeting of the Society; but no society trafficking in intoxicating liquors shall be eligible for membership in the Society, and each admission must be entered in the minute book of the Society. Every application for membership, except in the case of employés, must be sanctioned by a resolution of a general meeting of any society making such application, and the same must be made in the form as on next page, said form to be duly attested by the signature of the president, secretary, and three of the members thereof, and stamped with such society's seal. Every society making application shall state the number of its members, and take up not less than one share for each member, and shall increase the number annually as its members increase, in accordance with its last return to the Registrar; but no member other than a society registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1893, shall hold an interest in the funds exceeding £50. It shall be in the option of any society to apply for shares in excess of their individual membership at any time; such applications shall be signed by the president, secretary, and three members of committee, but the granting of such excess shares shall be at the discretion of the Committee of this Society.

Any employé applying for membership must apply for not less than five shares.

CAPITAL: HOW PAID UP.

The capital of the Society shall be raised in shares of twenty shillings each, which shall be transferable only; every member, society, or employé, on admission, shall pay the sum of not less than one shilling on each share taken up, and the unpaid portion of the shares may be paid by dividends, or bonus, and interest; but any member may pay up shares in full or in part at any time.

APPLICATION FORM.

*Whereas, by a resolution of the.....Co-operative Society Limited, passed at a general meeting held on the....day of....., it was resolved to take up.....shares (being one share of twenty shillings for each member), said shares being transferable, in the **Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited**, and to accept the same on the terms and conditions specified in the Rules. Executed under the seal of the society on the....day of..... Attested by*

.....

 } *Three Members.*

BENEFITS DERIVED FROM MEMBERSHIP.

(a) The liability of the member is limited, each member being only responsible for the value of the shares held.

(b) Members receive double the rate of dividend on purchases paid to non-members.

(c) Share capital is paid 5 per cent. per annum.

(d) Members have a share in the management of the Wholesale in proportion to the amount of goods bought, as each society has one vote in right of membership, one for the first £1,000 worth of goods bought, and one other additional vote for every complete £2,000 of purchases thereafter.

These advantages, added to the special benefits secured by the leading position of the Wholesale, will, we trust, induce societies as yet non-members to carefully reconsider the question, and take the necessary steps to secure to their members the full benefits of co-operative distribution.

CORRESPONDENCE.

All letters must be addressed to the Society, and not to individuals. Addressed envelopes are supplied at cost price. Separate slips ought to be used for the different departments—the Accountant's, Grocery and Provision, Drapery, Boot and Shoe, Furniture. The slips can all be enclosed in the one envelope. Attention to this simple rule will greatly facilitate the despatch of goods and ensure promptitude in answering inquiries; it will also aid in the classification of the letters for reference in any case of irregularity or dispute.

Cash Remittance.

Cheques must be made payable to the Society.

LIST OF BRANCHES OF THE UNION BANK OF SCOTLAND LIMITED.

HEAD OFFICES:—GLASGOW, INGRAM STREET; EDINBURGH, GEORGE STREET.
LONDON OFFICE:—62, CORNHILL, E.C.

BRANCHES:

Aberdeen, Fishmarket.	Edinburgh, Newington.	Leith.
" George Street.	" N. Merchiston.	" Leith Walk.
" Holburn.	" Norton Park.	Lerwick.
" Torry.	" S. Morningside.	Leslie.
" West End.	Edzell.	Lochgelly, Fifeshire.
Aberfeldy.	Elgin.	Lochgilthead.
Aberlour, Strathspey.	Ellon.	Macduff.
Alloa.	Errol.	Maybole.
Alva.	Fochabers.	Mearns (open on Tuesdays and
Ardishaig.	Forfar.	Fridays—sub to Barrhead).
Ardrossan.	Fraserburgh.	Millport.
Auchterarder.	Galston.	Moffat.
Auchtermuchty.	Gatehouse.	Moniaive.
Ayr.	Girvan.	New Aberdour (open on Mon-
Ballater.	Glasgow, Anderston.	days and Fridays—sub to
Banchory.	" Bridgeton Cross.	Rosehearty).
Banff.	" Buchanan Street.	New Pitsligo.
Barrhead.	" Charing Cross.	Paisley.
Barrhill.	" Cowcaddens.	Paisley, Wellmeadow.
Bathgate.	" Dennistoun.	Partick.
Beith.	" Eglinton Street.	" Hyndland.
Blair-Atholl (sub to Pitlochry).	" Hillhead.	Perth.
Blairgowrie.	" Hope Street.	Peterhead.
Bo'ness.	" Kinning Park.	Pitlochry.
Braemar.	" Maryhill.	Port-Glasgow.
Brechin.	" St. Vincent Street.	Portsoy.
Bridge of Allan.	" Shawlands.	Renfrew.
Buckie, Banffshire.	" Springburn.	Rosehearty.
Campbeltown.	" Tradeston.	St. Margaret's Hope, Orkney.
Castle-Douglas.	" Trongate.	Scalloway, Shetland (open on
Clydebank.	" Union Street.	Tuesdays and Fridays—sub
Coatbridge.	Gourock.	to Lerwick).
Coupar-Angus.	Govan.	Shettleston.
Crieff.	Greenock.	Stewarton.
Cullen.	Hamilton.	Stirling.
Dalbeattie.	Helensburgh.	Stonehouse.
Dalry, Galloway.	Huntly.	Strachur, Lochfyne (open on
Darvel (sub to Galston).	Inveraray.	Thursdays—sub to Inveraray)
Doune.	Inverness.	Stranraer.
Dumbarton.	Inverurie.	Strathaven.
Dumfries.	Irvine.	Stromness.
Dunblane.	Johnstone.	Tarbert, Lochfyne.
Dundee.	Keith.	Tarland.
Dunkeld.	Killin.	Thornton, Fife (open on Mon-
Dunning.	Kilmarnock.	days and Market Days—sub
Dunoon.	" Riccarton.	to Kirkcaldy).
Edinburgh, Forrest Road.	Kincardine.	Thornhill.
" Golden Acre.	Kirkcaldy.	Tillicoultry.
" Haymarket.	Kirkwall.	Tollcross (Glasgow).
" Hunter Square.	Kirriemuir.	Troon.
" Lothian Road.	Ladybank.	Turiff.
" Morningside.	Largs.	Wick.
" Murrayfield.	Larkhall.	

STATEMENT SHOWING THE PROGRESS OF THE SOCIETY FROM ITS COMMENCEMENT IN
SEPTEMBER, 1868, TO DATE.

Period.	Number of Shares Subscribed by Societies.	Number of Shares Subscribed by Employés.	Share Capital paid up.	Deposits, including Reserve and Insurance Funds.	Net Sales.	Increase over Previous Period.	Rate per cent.	Expenses.	Rate per £ of Sales.
			£	£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	d.
2 Years ended November, 1870 ..	*591	2,608	9,875	196,041 1 11	2,738 15 2	33
5 " " 1875 ..	†27,112	11,765	44,935	1,049,795 7 1	1,443,754 4 2	24,541 1 9	35
5 " " 1880 ..	41,584	19,150	91,020	3,122,660 6 7	1,472,864 19 6	89.2	50,422 9 2	4.1
5 " " 1885 ..	70,066	34,257	254,638	6,078,941 15 0	2,956,281 8 5	94.6	109,185 9 0	4.3
5 " " December, 1890 ..	†117,664	84,454	490,868	10,380,405 1 10	4,301,463 6 10	70.7	206,108 0 10	4.7
5 " " 1895 ..	§171,985	3,099	169,906	964,363	15,574,412 2 4	5,194,007 0 6	50.0	350,127 5 1	5.4
5 " " 1900 ..	252,276	6,431	254,076	1,422,639	23,398,585 19 11	7,894,173 11 7	50.2	534,273 3 2	5.4
5 " " 1905 ..	345,226	12,271	352,731	2,427,998	31,896,361 2 11	8,497,775 9 0	36.3	759,511 1 10	5.7
6 Months " June 30, 1906 ..	362,602	12,630	371,025	2,534,626	3,505,359 1 11	140,880 19 6	4.1	83,697 18 10	5.8
Totals to June 30, 1906	362,602	12,630	371,025	2,534,626	95,803,061 13 6	2,120,545 4 10	5.3

* £5 each. † 10s. each. ‡ 15s. each. § 20s. each.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE PROGRESS OF THE SOCIETY FROM ITS COMMENCEMENT IN
SEPTEMBER, 1868, TO DATE—*continued*.

Period.	Net Profit.	Average Dividend.	RESERVE AND INSURANCE FUNDS.			Depreciation on Buildings and Plant.
			Added.	Withdrawn.	Amount of Funds.	
	£ s. d.	d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
2 Years ended November, 1870.....	3,770 17 0	4	436 5 11	436 5 11	250 0 5
5 " " 1875.....	32,798 8 0	4½	2,793 1 2	826 14 3	2,402 12 10	2,315 9 10
5 " " 1880.....	68,463 16 5	4½	7,782 14 0	1,780 16 10	8,404 10 0	4,516 19 2
5 " " 1885.....	144,643 4 0	5½	19,534 8 7	6,684 14 0	21,254 4 7	11,277 8 6
5 " " December, 1890.....	289,518 7 11	6½	42,559 12 10	10,971 7 5	52,882 10 0	27,290 3 10
5 " " 1895.....	425,060 10 1	6½	76,710 8 7	50,661 15 6	78,931 3 1	130,120 16 8
5 " " 1900.....	932,867 11 4	7½	161,687 12 7	27,133 11 6	213,425 4 2	247,801 18 1
5 " " 1905.....	1,290,292 6 7	8	233,427 14 6	39,028 15 8	407,824 3 0	275,605 4 4
6 Months " June 30, 1906.....	142,983 15 11	8	21,680 9 1	2,830 5 0	426,683 7 1	41,547 5 11
Totals to June 30, 1906.....	3,340,338 17 3	..	566,661 7 3	139,978 0 2	426,683 7 1	730,743 6 9

GLASGOW GROCERY AND PROVISION DEPARTMENTS.

Period.	NET SALES.						Expenses.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Net Profit.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Stocks.	
	Dundee.		Kilmarnock.		Glasgow.							Total.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.						
24 Years ended Nov., 1870..	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	d.	£ s. d.	d.	£	
5 " " 1875..	196,041 1 11	196,041 1 11	2,798 15 2	34	3,770 17 0	46	9,060	
5 " " 1880..	1,649,795 7 1	1,649,795 7 1	24,541 1 9	36	32,798 8 0	47	29,400	
5 " " 1885..	298,990 6 2	2,487,052 12 5	2,781,042 18 7	45,425 19 0	39	60,102 10 4	51	43,190	
5 " " 1890..	155,347 8 11	21,507 10 0	12,982 1 4	3,697,796 1 6	3,887,633 1 9	60,284 9 3	37	80,069 5 7	49	28,190	
5 " " Dec., 1890..	5,176,664 9 2	5,176,664 9 2	75,677 13 5	35	121,135 11 2	56	63,000	
5 " " 1895..	7,707,270 3 11	7,707,270 3 11	130,547 16 8	37	189,795 18 3	59	80,424	
5 " " 1900..	11,609,641 11 0	11,609,641 11 0	164,998 12 4	34	340,881 12 6	76	85,303	
1 Year " 1901..	2,777,173 15 7	2,777,173 15 7	38,751 15 4	33	78,901 18 0	68	109,897	
1 " " 1902..	3,010,667 6 2	3,010,667 6 2	42,984 15 11	34	87,120 11 6	69	119,609	
1 " " 1903..	3,246,044 17 3	3,246,044 1 3	44,715 0 3	33	95,296 8 9	70	112,377	
*1 " " 1904..	3,524,469 8 11	3,524,469 8 11	46,814 7 6	32	96,985 10 4	65	117,665	
1 " " 1905..	3,603,576 4 4	3,603,576 4 4	47,454 14 4	31	102,900 9 1	68	108,410	
6 Months " June 30, 1906..	1,783,789 8 8	1,783,789 8 8	24,210 3 10	32	52,651 16 2	71	102,596	
Totals.....	449,337 15 1	21,507 10 0	12,982 1 4	50,469,982 7 11	50,953,809 14 4	739,095 4 9	35	1,351,810 16 8	63		

* Fifty-three weeks.

GROCERY DEPARTMENT, LEITH.

Period.	Net Sales.		Expenses.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Net Profit.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Stocks.
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	£
4 Years ended October, 1880.....	341,617	8	0	4,996	10	2	8,301	6	1	5·8	8,410
5 " " 1885.....	1,299,895	19	6	18,266	10	5	34,039	9	9	6·2	29,750
5 " " December, 1890.....	2,717,040	17	4	39,141	1	0	68,339	15	7	6·0	34,600
5 " " 1895.....	3,646,429	13	4	52,328	11	3	91,462	2	7	6·0	31,647
5 " " 1900.....	4,650,166	9	11	60,830	0	7	139,842	11	0	7·2	38,279
1 Year " 1901.....	1,135,456	17	6	14,009	1	10	38,599	12	8	8·1	44,860
1 " " 1902.....	1,179,865	2	4	14,533	19	1	37,912	12	1	7·7	36,836
1 " " 1903.....	1,245,357	4	9	14,838	2	0	39,791	11	5	7·7	50,329
1 " " 1904.....	1,347,709	18	10	18,197	8	11	39,702	10	0	7·0	61,184
1 " " 1905.....	1,375,601	15	0	20,662	6	3	41,271	7	4	7·2	46,954
6 Months " June 30, 1906.....	664,869	14	9	10,322	9	1	20,705	7	2	7·5	33,531
Totals.....	19,604,041	1	3	268,126	1	7	559,968	5	8	6·8

* Fifty-three weeks.

GROCERY DEPARTMENT, KILMARNOCK.

Period.	Net Sales.		Expenses.		Rate per £ of Sales.	Net Profit.		Rate per £ of Sales.	Stocks.
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.		£	s. d.		
3½ Years ended October, 1885.....	136,835	15 11	2,952	19 11	5·1	3,151	1 3	5·5	2,300
5 " " December, 1890.....	269,960	11 5	4,309	19 4	3·7	9,037	4 2	8·0	2,400
5 " " " 1895.....	365,040	0 8	7,180	4 11	4·7	12,962	12 3	8·5	2,030
5 " " " 1900.....	514,966	15 3	10,467	16 8	4·8	17,185	4 3	8·0	3,848
1 Year " " 1901.....	121,990	19 0	2,266	19 10	4·4	5,201	13 2	10·2	3,980
1 " " " 1902.....	139,854	11 0	2,335	9 9	4·1	5,258	13 9	9·0	4,376
1 " " " 1903.....	145,211	5 9	2,438	3 6	4·0	5,723	13 2	9·6	4,610
*1 " " " 1904.....	133,168	3 7	2,320	10 4	4·2	4,582	4 6	8·3	2,443
1 " " " 1905.....	106,750	19 2	2,124	0 11	4·8	1,426	12 3	3·2	5,135
6 Months " June 30, 1906.....	42,585	11 7	1,037	10 7	5·8	984	11 7	5·5	2,819
Totals.....	1,976,364	13 4	37,433	15 9	4·5	65,513	9 4	8·0

* Fifty-three weeks.

GROCERY DEPARTMENT, DUNDEE.

Period.	Net Sales.			Expenses.			Rate per £ of Sales.			Net Profit.			Rate per £ of Sales.			Stocks.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	d.	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
3½ Years ended October, 1885.....	150,955	18	1	3,436	7	9	5·4			1,628	4	2	2·5			2,890		
5 " " December, 1890.....	320,587	3	5	5,614	14	0	4·2			5,035	2	10	3·7			4,070		
5 " " " 1895.....	450,497	14	8	6,239	6	5	3·3			11,080	15	11	5·9			2,260		
5 " " " 1900.....	558,835	10	6	6,563	2	1	2·8			15,747	19	6	6·7			1,853		
1 Year " " " 1901.....	124,171	7	6	1,325	5	9	2·5			4,287	17	4	8·2			3,680		
1 " " " 1902.....	125,534	3	6	1,470	2	6	2·8			3,907	6	7	7·5			2,667		
1 " " " 1903.....	137,051	9	11	1,381	15	9	2·4			4,185	9	6	7·3			3,617		
*1 " " " 1904.....	159,882	11	8	1,597	5	8	2·4			5,156	15	10	7·7			5,525		
1 " " " 1905.....	173,149	17	6	1,607	1	10	2·3			5,750	16	7	7·9			3,361		
6 Months " " June 30, 1906.....	82,595	5	4	873	7	0	2·5			2,713	14	10	7·8			4,278		
Totals.....	2,283,261	2	1	30,109	8	9	3·1			59,494	3	1	6·2				

* Fifty-three weeks.

DRAPERY DEPARTMENT.

Period.	Net Sales.		Expenses.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Net Profit.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Stocks.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	d.		£	s. d.	d.		£	
*3½ Years ended October, 1885.....	529,694	8 2	20,815	4 5	9·4		20,314	11 1	9·2		35,990	
5 " " December, 1890.....	1,195,913	8 3	50,393	9 7	10·1		50,920	4 4	10·2		64,000	
5 " " " 1895.....	2,057,557	6 1	97,333	9 6	11·3		79,958	18 8	9·3		103,971	
5 " " " 1900.....	3,351,714	13 11	156,926	2 11	11·2		146,985	18 8	10·5		149,209	
1 Year " " 1901.....	832,021	3 0	41,548	19 8	11·9		35,176	4 11	10·2		133,713	
1 " " " 1902.....	887,896	4 5	45,633	3 1	12·3		38,659	7 8	10·5		165,468	
1 " " " 1903.....	875,405	15 1	49,733	8 1	13·6		24,635	7 0	6·8		173,574	
†1 " " " 1904.....	866,751	18 9	49,797	19 2	13·8		20,184	9 6	5·6		152,611	
1 " " " 1905.....	895,490	2 8	49,803	4 0	13·4		24,321	18 8	6·5		150,550	
6 Months " June 30, 1906.....	507,674	13 7	25,497	12 6	12·0		17,366	12 4	8·2		158,048	
Totals.....	12,010,059	13 11	587,482	12 11	11·7		458,523	12 10	9·1		

* Includes Boots and Furniture to 1884.

† Fifty-three weeks.

BOOT AND SHOE DEPARTMENT.

Period.	Net Sales.		Expenses.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Net Profit.		Rate per £ of Sales.		Stocks.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	d.	s. d.	£	s. d.	d.	s. d.	£	s. d.
1 Year ended October, 1885	55,467	0 1	1,602	18 5	6·9	2,481	18 3	10·7			11,520	
5 Years " December, 1890	427,110	9 1	15,177	13 2	8·5	10,991	17 9	6·1			14,360	
5 " " 1895	781,264	3 8	31,492	10 8	9·6	23,802	16 7	7·3			34,754	
5 " " 1900	1,372,450	4 4	53,697	13 5	9·3	37,303	11 3	6·5			66,107	
1 Year " 1901	351,205	14 6	13,399	17 6	9·1	11,241	1 0	7·7			78,935	
1 " " 1902	358,534	5 6	15,690	1 9	10·5	8,925	15 4	5·7			95,146	
1 " " 1903	388,348	7 11	16,464	11 3	10·2	11,266	6 2	7·0			77,252	
1 " " 1904	384,335	4 6	16,367	7 4	10·2	10,975	9 4	6·9			73,825	
1 " " 1905	388,749	0 11	16,936	7 11	10·4	9,483	7 5	5·9			88,035	
6 Months ended June 30, 1906	220,121	3 4	8,808	0 5	9·7	7,374	9 11	8·0			81,544	
Totals.....	4,727,585	13 10	189,727	1 10	9·6	133,846	13 0	6 8			

* Fifty-three weeks.

FURNITURE AND FURNISHING DEPARTMENT.

Period.	Net Sales.	Expenses.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Net Profit.	Rate per £ of Sales.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	d.	£ s. d.	d.	£
1 Year ended October, 1885	18,459 11 6	1,285 5 9	16·7	431 3 11	5·6	5,600
5 Years " December, 1890	250,296 11 9	15,793 1 2	15·1	11,842 11 11	11·3	13,600
5 " " 1895	494,445 18 0	35,005 5 8	16·9	22,516 2 0	6·1	20,509
5 " " 1900	1,031,234 6 10	80,789 15 0	18·8	39,502 7 11	9·1	43,758
1 Year " 1901	265,746 9 5	22,155 12 10	20·0	7,900 17 9	7·1	54,152
1 " " 1902	274,689 7 10	24,274 19 6	21·2	4,492 1 2	4·0	53,472
1 " " 1903	272,879 12 11	24,837 3 11	21·9	4,877 15 6	4·3	56,397
1 " " 1904	274,930 11 10	25,240 12 9	22·0	5,836 1 4	5·0	54,490
1 " " 1905	275,875 10 3	25,848 5 10	22·4	3,960 16 11	3·5	51,046
6 Months ended June 30, 1906	149,199 13 5	12,798 15 5	20·6	5,018 14 6	8·0	52,650
Totals	3,307,757 13 9	268,028 17 10	19·4	106,378 12 11	7·7

TAILORING FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
*November 4, 1882	427 10 10	427 10 10	319 12 11	74·70	1 11 2	0·23
" 3, 1883	2,269 8 1	2,269 8 1	1,632 19 4	71·92	11 9 5	0·48	304
" 1, 1884	2,521 7 10	2,521 7 10	1,653 13 11	65·56	45 9 5	1·78	341
October 31, 1885	3,611 11 9	3,611 11 9	2,179 5 7	60·34	80 4 4	2·21	445
+December 25, 1886	6,252 18 7	6,252 18 7	3,846 10 4	61·51	13 9 8	0·20	485
" 31, 1887	8,079 6 7	7,745 12 10	4,847 7 10	62·58	1175 8 0	0·96	424
" 29, 1888	8,331 15 9	8,639 6 6	5,310 17 11	61·45	509 3 5	5·89	1,083
" 28, 1889	9,250 3 7	9,309 10 8	5,580 3 7	59·36	935 2 1	9·94	1,280
" 27, 1890	13,869 6 9	14,138 2 1	7,832 17 8	55·39	1,345 19 4	9·58	1,564
" 26, 1891	13,117 7 5	12,756 14 6	7,987 13 1	57·12	1,287 5 4	10·08	1,222
" 31, 1892	15,597 19 7	15,817 9 9	8,596 18 3	54·34	1,878 11 4	11·87	1,063
" 30, 1893	15,694 17 5	15,471 11 3	8,922 13 10	57·66	1,846 11 10	11·93	1,120
" 29, 1894	16,161 12 1	16,137 17 10	9,145 18 0	56·67	2,040 7 7	12·64	1,177
" 28, 1895	20,268 12 9	20,753 2 9	10,597 2 7	51·06	3,091 13 0	14·89	1,634
" 26, 1896	22,765 6 9	22,443 19 2	11,383 5 11	50·72	3,620 8 6	16·12	1,459
" 25, 1897	22,874 11 10	25,753 6 9	11,227 18 3	43·59	3,541 4 10	13·74	1,332
" 31, 1898	19,209 18 4	19,383 18 11	10,616 6 0	54·76	2,891 10 7	14·91	1,268
" 30, 1899	22,552 7 11	23,203 17 9	11,797 11 5	50·84	3,922 12 8	16·90	2,499
" 29, 1900	24,513 13 6	23,629 11 3	13,113 11 9	55·49	3,144 18 6	13·80	2,106
" 28, 1901	21,235 9 4	21,461 7 10	12,990 9 3	60·56	1,747 8 3	8·13	2,615
" 27, 1902	23,840 7 4	24,202 11 4	13,513 16 7	55·84	1,884 15 4	7·76	2,354
" 26, 1903	22,435 2 9	21,994 9 6	13,183 10 9	60·14	1,335 10 6	6·11	2,354
" 31, 1904	21,655 18 7	22,184 19 5	13,803 14 8	62·37	1,170 14 4	5·23	2,452
" 30, 1905	21,957 9 2	21,606 6 0	13,727 6 1	63·65	720 13 6	3·19	2,472
§June 30, 1906	11,274 16 5	11,334 15 1	7,130 7 7	62·90	400 18 3	3·54	2,079
Totals.....	369,269 0 11	373,141 8 3	210,241 13 1	56·34	37,392 4 11	10·02
				† Sixty weeks.	‡ Half year.	§ Loss.	
				* Quarter.	‡ Fifty-three weeks.		

WOOLLEN SHIRT FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
*November 4, 1882	201 11 0	201 11 0	159 13 10	79.10	21 9 4	10.44
" 3, 1883	759 13 1	759 13 1	654 19 9	86.30	21 19 2	2.89	15
" 1, 1884	869 19 7	869 19 7	744 1 9	85.51	1 8 11	0.17	20
October 31, 1885	1,407 7 8	1,407 7 8	885 0 8	62.90	89 5 6	6.32	70
+December 25, 1886	1,892 16 11	1,892 16 11	1,132 12 6	59.83	72 3 4	3.80	48
† " 31, 1887	1,631 16 4	1,650 6 0	1,033 10 9	62.60	40 5 5	2.42	92
" 29, 1888	2,368 15 6	2,380 15 0	1,577 7 3	66.26	¶13 5 6	0.54	112
" 28, 1889	2,797 17 8	2,804 5 5	1,728 7 3	61.62	210 9 4	7.48	119
" 27, 1890	2,358 13 1	2,852 14 7	1,781 1 5	62.44	253 16 6	8.90	72
" 26, 1891	3,390 12 2	3,354 12 11	2,046 18 11	61.01	335 4 8	9.98	120
† " 31, 1892	3,361 0 1	3,433 1 2	2,213 18 6	64.49	245 5 11	7.13	208
" 30, 1893	3,851 10 0	3,797 16 11	2,467 11 5	64.97	328 15 5	8.63	256
" 29, 1894	4,762 11 0	4,792 4 5	2,872 9 3	59.93	633 14 2	13.21	764
" 28, 1895	7,502 19 3	7,622 1 5	3,947 2 8	51.78	451 17 0	5.93	958
" 26, 1896	9,040 12 5	8,960 12 6	4,651 1 10	51.90	946 5 4	10.55	2,133
" 25, 1897	10,942 4 7	10,899 8 1	5,703 16 5	52.33	662 12 0	6.07	2,239
† " 31, 1898	11,436 18 9	11,404 16 1	6,101 17 0	53.50	716 16 3	6.27	2,066
" 30, 1899	13,052 10 11	13,130 5 5	7,070 3 9	53.84	579 4 11	4.41	2,125
" 29, 1900	14,485 14 9	14,756 13 6	8,320 8 0	59.77	131 0 10	0.88	2,230
§ " 28, 1901	9,668 3 8	9,618 14 1	5,976 15 1	62.61	¶253 5 7	2.63	946
" 27, 1902	7,275 11 0	7,301 10 10	4,496 1 8	61.55	1,039 6 3	14.18	693
" 26, 1903	7,854 0 3	7,825 2 4	4,785 18 4	61.17	1,219 12 9	15.47	226
† " 31, 1904	7,785 7 8	7,768 17 7	4,776 19 5	61.57	1,236 14 3	15.72	71
" 30, 1905	8,002 18 1	8,054 7 8	4,894 16 9	60.75	1,316 17 2	16.34	57
June 30, 1906	5,062 19 2	5,041 1 11	3,013 9 6	59.77	939 1 11	18.62	20
Totals	142,264 4 7	142,580 19 1	83,536 3 8	58.58	11,226 15 5	7.87

* Quarter. † Sixty weeks.

‡ Fifty-three weeks.

§ Underclothing Department disjoined and established as a separate factory.

|| Half year. ¶ Loss.

ARTISAN CLOTHING FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 26, 1891	2,561 19 4	2,638 13 1	1,855 3 2	70-31	88 18 10	3-37	186
" 31, 1892	2,692 0 10	2,692 4 5	1,850 12 7	70-34	135 14 3	5-13	100
" 30, 1893	2,958 17 8	3,039 7 1	2,002 4 10	65-87	41 17 4	1-38	476
" 29, 1894	3,493 7 4	3,434 18 3	2,109 17 8	61-44	113 13 2	3-29	410
" 28, 1895	3,513 6 5	3,541 2 4	2,523 13 11	71-25	246 10 2	6-94	251
" 26, 1896	3,844 8 9	3,861 14 5	2,668 7 5	69-10	399 9 0	10-33	203
" 25, 1897	4,082 13 9	4,138 6 1	2,954 17 2	71-41	294 17 1	7-10	338
" 31, 1898	4,590 17 5	4,535 14 0	3,152 19 4	69-52	479 17 0	10-58	175
" 30, 1899	5,174 5 1	5,118 2 10	3,511 4 9	68-60	601 14 9	11-93	150
" 29, 1900	6,189 10 7	6,199 1 5	4,282 6 4	69-07	683 0 6	11-01	424
" 28, 1901	5,710 18 11	5,675 2 3	4,316 14 9	75-99	218 2 10	3-90	213
" 27, 1902	6,665 10 3	6,683 10 3	4,841 5 7	72-44	629 6 3	9-39	320
" 26, 1903	6,568 16 0	6,550 16 0	4,921 5 11	75-26	389 16 1	5-80	340
" 31, 1904	5,945 4 7	5,945 4 7	4,881 16 10	82-17	189 3 2	3-24	217
" 30, 1905	7,377 11 1	7,907 13 1	5,866 19 9	77-11	85 11 6	1-11	484
† June 30, 1906	4,532 1 6	4,554 15 7	3,273 17 10	71-87	357 15 10	7-86	709
Totals.....	75,901 9 6	76,154 5 8	55,013 7 10	72-24	4,577 1 5	6-01	..

• Fifty-three weeks.

† Half year.

; Loss.

MANTLE FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Net Loss.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 26, 1891 ..	2,324 11 2	2,358 6 7	1,604 9 10	68.02	139 0 4	5.89	350
* 31, 1892 ..	2,717 1 10	2,707 4 1	1,702 4 3	62.87	10 11 6	0.36	275
" 30, 1893 ..	2,348 10 10	2,354 14 1	1,586 8 6	67.37	156 1 0	6.62	382
" 29, 1894 ..	2,711 10 10	2,701 10 1	1,436 10 5	55.38	20 14 6	0.74	178
" 28, 1895 ..	2,953 7 7	2,953 7 7	1,643 2 6	55.64	218 6 0	7.38	82
" 26, 1896 ..	3,007 9 9	3,009 9 9	1,747 6 5	58.05	155 6 2	5.15	168
" 25, 1897 ..	3,139 12 2	3,151 7 11	1,990 11 8	63.15	74 13 9	2.35	148
* 31, 1898 ..	4,092 19 1	4,100 14 10	2,488 10 1	60.56	338 10 10	8.24	134
" 30, 1899 ..	4,866 7 5	4,844 15 11	3,089 5 4	63.77	327 9 1	6.75	175
" 29, 1900 ..	5,039 19 4	5,039 19 4	3,401 6 2	67.48	103 13 10	2.04	183
" 28, 1901 ..	5,213 12 1	5,232 12 3	3,521 12 6	67.27	88 4 2	1.67	192
" 27, 1902 ..	5,945 3 8	5,926 3 6	3,462 4 9	58.55	1038 6 7	17.33	273
" 26, 1903 ..	5,070 3 4	5,070 3 4	3,153 2 3	62.18	822 15 9	16.35	285
* 31, 1904 ..	4,360 7 7	4,360 7 7	3,021 13 0	69.46	221 13 6	4.97	238
" 30, 1905 ..	3,966 14 1	3,966 14 1	2,784 14 8	70.16	199 5 9	5.05	343
† June 30, 1906 ..	1,853 15 1	1,853 15 1	1,304 17 4	70.37	114 13 10	6.15	416
Totals	59,611 5 10	59,631 6 0	37,992 13 8	63.71	3826 11 8	408 10 9
					408 10 9			
					3418 0 11	5.73			

* Fifty-three weeks.

† Half year.

BOOT FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.			Rate per cent.	Net Profit.			Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£		
October 31, 1885 ..	13,804 12 2	13,804 12 2	4,512 8 10	32-68	193 9 5	1-39	3,435				
* December 26, 1886 ..	33,816 6 8	33,816 6 8	10,125 5 11	29-94	1,114 5 0	3-29	4,020				
† " 31, 1887 ..	33,857 0 4	33,834 16 10	11,038 11 4	32-62	1,138 3 10	3-36	5,406				
" 29, 1888 ..	38,173 13 1	39,367 13 8	13,563 6 6	34-45	1,759 17 0	4-47	11,869				
" 28, 1889 ..	49,630 3 6	54,086 1 7	18,922 6 4	34-98	2,551 2 11	4-71	15,890				
" 27, 1890 ..	57,408 2 11	59,125 6 6	21,845 4 3	36-94	3,612 1 9	6-11	17,349				
" 26, 1891 ..	71,127 5 1	73,035 11 6	26,026 9 6	35-63	3,632 0 9	4-97	18,292				
" 31, 1892 ..	82,752 5 9	85,524 18 1	31,316 1 2	36-61	4,859 17 3	5-68	18,220				
" 30, 1893 ..	98,706 6 0	99,017 13 6	37,032 18 5	37-40	7,431 7 5	7-50	20,696				
" 29, 1894 ..	102,723 9 4	110,687 13 11	41,000 15 4	37-04	7,431 2 5	6-71	27,177				
" 28, 1895 ..	122,444 13 9	132,128 17 5	46,828 13 9	35-44	9,379 19 3	7-09	35,328				
" 26, 1896 ..	108,382 13 11	107,364 16 8	41,751 12 2	38-88	6,474 7 2	6-03	34,019				
" 25, 1897 ..	157,572 8 3	160,441 2 4	58,592 0 6	36-51	7,804 5 4	4-86	38,889				
† " 31, 1898 ..	161,685 4 5	162,799 6 7	61,690 18 2	37-89	7,735 18 1	4-75	41,010				
" 30, 1899 ..	190,046 19 11	188,178 19 6	68,403 3 5	36-35	7,874 9 7	4-18	47,836				
" 29, 1900 ..	224,432 7 6	230,040 7 11	75,787 1 4	32-94	7,304 11 3	3-17	60,417				
" 28, 1901 ..	245,576 19 1	243,720 15 2	78,846 9 2	32-43	10,314 13 7	4-25	50,380				
" 27, 1902 ..	242,728 19 4	243,554 2 8	79,038 7 4	32-45	9,255 7 6	3-79	48,886				
" 26, 1903 ..	234,239 8 10	229,739 0 5	75,231 7 6	32-80	7,549 13 1	3-27	48,082				
" 31, 1904 ..	238,708 3 8	239,846 1 0	76,831 9 1	32-08	5,184 15 11	2-16	54,052				
† " 30, 1905 ..	242,562 19 2	237,724 8 9	72,990 6 8	30-70	4,425 11 4	1-87	43,063				
† June 30, 1906 ..	118,723 12 0	125,127 10 9	35,961 5 7	28-74	1,700 14 10	1-35	47,917				
Totals.....	2,860,103 14 8	2,902,969 3 7	987,326 2 3	34-01	118,727 14 8	4-08				

: Half year.

† Fifty-three weeks.

* Sixty weeks.

CABINET WORKS.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
October 31, 1885.....	1,288 9 10	1,288 9 10	725 9 0	56.28	20 10 3	1.55	364
*December 25, 1886.....	2,231 13 11	2,231 13 11	1,204 11 9	53.96	99 12 3	4.43	425
† " 31, 1887.....	2,488 16 7	2,557 7 0	1,379 9 1	53.93	67 11 0	2.62	1,069
" 29, 1888.....	4,089 19 0	4,323 13 4	2,310 2 4	53.43	\$20 12 1	0.46	2,152
" 28, 1889.....	7,654 8 1	7,771 19 6	4,022 5 0	51.75	183 18 6	2.35	2,466
" 27, 1890.....	13,338 15 1	13,428 9 11	7,116 6 6	52.99	899 5 1	6.69	4,975
" 26, 1891.....	14,679 7 9	15,146 13 9	7,996 15 7	52.79	174 14 0	1.14	6,124
" 31, 1892.....	16,518 5 9	17,386 17 1	9,271 17 9	53.32	940 9 0	5.40	6,808
" 30, 1893.....	16,884 2 5	17,654 2 5	9,975 2 10	56.50	1,111 16 9	6.29	8,696
" 29, 1894.....	18,600 13 11	19,097 15 10	10,937 0 9	57.27	668 2 8	3.49	9,233
" 28, 1895.....	21,590 4 0	17,903 2 2	11,247 9 3	62.82	1,004 3 2	5.60	8,552
" 26, 1896.....	24,972 10 1	25,798 3 9	13,158 18 8	51.00	1,795 8 2	6.95	10,884
" 25, 1897.....	27,618 0 1	25,915 13 9	15,165 1 7	58.51	1,798 14 7	6.08	11,726
† " 31, 1898.....	33,377 10 3	33,083 13 9	17,387 9 3	52.55	1,474 17 3	4.45	12,520
" 30, 1899.....	37,442 16 6	38,781 15 8	20,348 2 7	52.46	819 11 4	2.11	15,660
" 29, 1900.....	45,529 6 4	47,103 14 9	25,284 5 4	53.67	1,842 4 10	3.91	23,780
" 28, 1901.....	49,462 18 6	49,322 13 1	25,735 6 9	52.20	2,959 5 4	5.97	23,441
" 27, 1902.....	47,605 16 3	48,024 15 2	24,171 5 7	50.51	2,796 0 2	5.78	22,104
" 26, 1903.....	46,454 10 1	48,053 11 6	24,617 12 10	51.23	2,680 3 5	5.58	21,878
† " 31, 1904.....	43,601 18 3	46,243 17 3	22,695 7 7	49.07	956 6 3	2.07	18,520
" 30, 1905.....	43,738 7 1	46,837 0 10	22,748 16 5	48.69	1,271 6 3	2.74	18,574
† June 30, 1906.....	22,865 19 9	22,298 15 3	11,256 17 7	50.48	344 7 5	1.54	17,194
Totals	542,054 9 6	550,253 18 6	288,755 14 0	52.47	23,667 15 7	4.30
				* Sixty weeks.	† Fifty-three weeks.	‡ Half year.	\$ Loss.

HOSIERY FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.		Expenses on Production.		Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 30, 1893	5,511 14 8	5,467 7 9	1,928 1 6	35.26	48 5 6	0.87	1,054		
" 29, 1894	5,126 8 2	5,165 3 11	1,891 9 11	36.61	72 5 2	1.39	960		
" 28, 1895	6,966 5 4	6,760 6 11	2,191 10 0	32.41	461 7 11	6.82	745		
" 26, 1896	7,779 14 10	8,777 13 9	2,678 4 3	30.51	819 12 8	9.33	1,830		
" 25, 1897	9,990 18 4	9,548 12 3	3,331 7 0	34.88	491 3 7	5.14	1,526		
" 31, 1898	9,903 8 10	10,533 7 5	3,499 6 4	33.22	384 4 7	3.64	2,190		
" 30, 1899	11,311 14 11	10,301 2 7	3,810 11 1	36.98	638 11 6	6.19	2,789		
" 29, 1900	14,752 19 1	17,237 16 5	5,438 3 9	31.55	402 17 4	2.33	4,048		
" 28, 1901	17,058 4 5	17,066 12 5	5,721 3 1	33.56	565 19 4	3.39	4,430		
" 27, 1902	20,465 8 9	19,276 10 7	6,473 8 6	33.59	1,167 19 3	5.73	3,428		
" 26, 1903	21,468 14 0	22,021 4 9	7,082 10 4	32.16	650 4 1	2.90	3,739		
" 31, 1904	21,728 7 6	20,904 11 4	7,383 4 8	35.57	557 3 2	2.66	2,492		
" 30, 1905	21,752 13 7	21,835 10 3	7,078 6 9	32.43	401 1 4	1.81	3,737		
† June 30, 1906	9,807 19 2	13,104 14 3	3,932 13 5	30.00	479 0 5	3.65	8,674		
Totals	183,624 11 7	188,000 14 7	62,440 0 7	33.21	6,025 9 6	3.20		

* Fifty-three weeks.

† Half year.

‡ Loss.

BRUSH FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 27, 1890..	3,127 3 11	3,805 17 10	1,429 8 0	37.54	266 9 0	6.99	1,302
" 26, 1891..	3,797 19 8	4,094 0 7	1,710 12 7	41.77	257 4 0	6.27	2,758
" 31, 1892..	4,491 12 2	4,480 14 3	1,921 15 8	43.36	196 3 11	4.42	2,991
" 30, 1893..	4,231 1 1	3,942 13 3	1,767 16 7	44.82	190 13 2	4.82	2,971
" 29, 1894..	4,859 11 11	4,771 18 6	1,867 19 2	39.14	354 17 10	7.43	3,277
" 28, 1895..	5,367 13 1	5,199 3 2	1,963 8 11	37.75	670 7 9	12.88	3,847
" 26, 1896..	5,894 19 6	5,895 13 10	2,148 13 2	36.44	332 14 3	5.63	4,067
" 25, 1897..	6,304 17 10	6,760 2 11	2,538 5 11	37.54	539 15 8	7.97	5,056
" 31, 1898..	6,462 15 4	6,128 3 4	2,597 0 5	42.37	103 8 6	1.68	5,227
" 30, 1899..	7,758 5 10	7,378 5 0	2,845 16 3	38.56	1040 7 11	14.09	5,109
" 29, 1900..	7,223 0 0	7,191 18 4	3,111 3 3	43.25	896 5 5	12.45	6,055
" 28, 1901..	7,750 9 7	7,006 15 9	2,922 8 2	41.96	942 3 3	13.24	5,416
" 27, 1902..	7,991 12 2	7,967 10 10	3,159 1 3	39.63	724 10 7	8.99	4,649
" 26, 1903..	7,574 14 6	6,832 4 10	3,061 15 5	44.89	355 2 9	5.08	4,059
" 31, 1904..	7,940 8 3	8,077 6 8	3,150 18 10	39.43	661 7 5	7.95	4,921
" 30, 1905..	7,728 16 9	7,256 13 4	3,027 7 9	41.99	309 16 9	4.07	4,079
† June 30, 1906..	4,675 5 1	4,149 19 11	1,513 17 2	36.45	245 16 3	5.90	3,019
Totals	103,180 6 8	100,889 2 4	40,737 8 5	40.37	8,087 4 5	8.01

* Fifty-three weeks.

† Half year.

PRINTING WORKS.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
*December 31, 1887..	649 14 2	653 15 5	347 14 7	53.14	41 19 10	6.43	175
" 29, 1888..	3,114 17 4	3,121 12 6	1,480 17 4	47.42	286 2 5	9.16	228
" 28, 1889..	3,855 7 5	3,985 11 11	2,126 7 7	53.35	262 0 6	6.57	602
" 27, 1890..	7,242 0 4	7,178 12 8	3,297 2 11	45.93	491 18 8	6.84	832
" 26, 1891..	9,018 4 7	9,159 6 11	3,856 17 5	42.10	718 3 8	7.83	1,341
† " 31, 1892..	12,643 8 3	12,733 18 4	5,385 6 0	42.29	887 2 4	6.96	2,058
" 30, 1893..	14,973 14 11	14,812 0 11	6,013 19 1	40.59	1,547 16 9	10.44	1,584
" 29, 1894..	15,492 11 6	15,541 11 5	5,959 16 2	38.34	2,158 5 7	13.88	1,688
" 28, 1895..	18,059 0 7	18,256 18 6	7,049 14 9	38.61	2,389 3 4	13.08	2,174
" 26, 1896..	22,087 1 0	22,026 9 7	8,035 13 5	36.48	3,035 15 10	13.77	2,715
† " 25, 1897..	24,402 13 10	24,664 1 7	9,460 13 11	38.35	3,391 12 9	13.75	3,573
" 31, 1898..	28,302 0 9	27,985 1 9	10,291 11 8	36.77	4,904 12 11	17.52	2,312
" 30, 1899..	29,123 18 11	29,229 6 3	10,945 7 2	37.44	4,308 6 7	14.73	2,757
" 29, 1900..	31,172 0 0	30,978 11 6	12,059 0 6	38.92	3,699 7 0	11.94	4,607
" 28, 1901..	31,708 18 7	32,477 15 2	12,701 8 9	39.11	2,807 2 5	8.65	4,488
† " 27, 1902..	37,706 18 2	37,653 13 1	14,724 8 11	39.10	3,968 6 2	10.54	5,657
" 26, 1903..	41,749 11 7	42,015 18 7	16,734 12 11	39.80	4,198 15 0	9.99	5,681
" 31, 1904..	45,276 1 4	45,338 11 6	18,928 12 2	41.74	3,567 7 3	7.88	5,538
" 30, 1905..	50,454 11 3	49,883 6 11	20,722 11 8	41.65	3,911 1 8	7.71	4,498
† June 30, 1906..	25,446 3 7	25,642 19 11	10,423 0 1	40.64	2,431 18 4	9.48	4,822
Totals	452,478 18 1	453,339 4 5	180,544 12 0	39.82	49,006 19 0	10.81

* Quarter.

† Fifty-three weeks.

; Half year.

PRESERVE WORKS.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
*December 27, 1890..	11,200 5 8	12,816 4 7	1,036 0 6	8·08	681 6 4	5·31	3,091
" 26, 1891..	29,367 11 10	36,111 1 4	3,000 12 5	8·30	1,739 8 2	4·81	9,042
† " 31, 1892..	42,499 16 3	50,623 5 6	5,051 19 9	9·98	2,806 7 6	5·54	21,380
" 30, 1893..	52,086 10 8	48,726 7 8	6,583 8 10	13·51	2,219 18 2	4·55	20,553
" 29, 1894..	56,762 8 5	61,883 11 4	8,016 17 8	12·95	4,154 10 11	6·71	17,925
" 28, 1895..	56,096 7 0	60,414 16 5	8,100 5 7	13·40	3,888 18 4	6·35	22,205
" 26, 1896..	60,271 3 1	63,045 6 6	8,276 6 8	13·12	4,194 3 5	6·65	22,204
" 25, 1897..	73,490 0 7	70,086 12 0	8,347 9 9	11·90	8,514 13 9	12·14	16,517
† " 31, 1898..	71,922 0 0	77,976 10 9	10,027 4 10	12·86	7,758 16 11	9·94	22,655
" 30, 1899..	68,468 18 10	64,983 16 10	9,941 4 6	15·30	5,527 5 10	8·51	20,818
" 29, 1900..	63,298 15 8	62,221 9 0	10,106 5 1	16·24	4,678 7 0	7·51	20,808
" 28, 1901..	62,837 14 7	68,863 15 10	10,752 5 1	16·26	4,097 5 3	6·46	35,196
" 27, 1902..	78,272 15 1	78,914 16 4	11,947 14 11	16·74	6,410 11 4	7·92	26,057
" 26, 1903..	98,297 11 6	96,179 3 4	13,275 1 7	15·27	6,183 4 11	6·05	25,123
† " 31, 1904..	78,498 2 1	94,537 1 6	14,629 5 10	16·13	6,522 6 9	7·61	43,889
" 30, 1905..	86,256 19 2	70,916 2 6	13,765 5 0	20·49	2,640 5 9	3·08	27,556
*June 30, 1906..	49,182 8 7	41,838 4 8	7,232 3 4	17·28	2,462 5 1	5·88	10,477
Totals	1,038,809 9 0	1,060,088 8 1	150,089 11 4	14·15	74,429 15 5	7·02

* Half year.

† Fifty-three weeks.

CONFECTIONERY WORKS.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
*December 25, 1891	3,166 2 9	3,278 7 3	413 0 10	12.59	95 10 10	2.89	489
† " 31, 1892	5,479 13 6	6,065 8 5	1,283 4 2	21.15	†449 10 0	7.40	1,234
" 30, 1893	10,894 12 6	10,976 18 9	2,901 14 4	26.43	†437 9 5	3.98	1,619
" 23, 1894	14,043 14 7	14,798 12 5	3,065 15 11	20.71	718 7 0	4.85	1,495
" 28, 1895	12,829 14 3	12,786 3 1	3,063 19 4	24.01	541 3 8	4.23	1,216
" 26, 1896	14,193 5 5	13,894 19 5	3,054 17 2	21.98	527 13 10	3.79	824
" 25, 1897	14,845 17 5	14,939 1 9	3,192 3 1	21.36	1,345 10 4	9.00	1,192
† " 31, 1898	14,243 19 10	14,196 3 5	3,577 4 6	25.19	367 1 10	2.58	1,060
" 30, 1899	15,825 16 3	15,821 13 9	3,546 17 0	22.41	1,095 10 8	6.92	1,309
" 23, 1900	17,442 16 7	17,822 7 7	3,714 16 11	20.84	919 15 5	5.15	1,607
" 28, 1901	17,864 1 11	17,742 5 0	3,899 16 0	21.48	476 1 5	2.66	1,932
" 27, 1902	17,920 12 8	18,181 16 5	4,014 1 9	22.14	695 18 5	3.93	2,039
" 26, 1903	17,801 16 5	17,807 17 6	3,926 16 5	22.03	846 12 1	4.75	1,635
† " 31, 1904	18,219 2 4	18,092 9 1	4,364 10 7	24.09	1,508 18 10	8.38	2,019
" 30, 1905	16,840 14 5	16,755 10 3	4,364 13 7	16.05	614 2 4	3.73	1,830
*June 30, 1906	8,156 3 11	8,118 1 5	2,296 13 3	28.28	441 8 9	5.43	1,982
Totals.....	219,768 4 9	221,277 15 6	50,596 4 10	22.26	9,306 16 0	4.20

* Half year. † Fifty-three weeks. ; Loss.

TOBACCO FACTORY.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
*December 26, 1891.....	15,510 4 8	21,326 17 2	1,704 19 6	7.99	651 11 11	3.05	8,958
† " 31, 1892.....	59,333 4 2	58,916 9 4	4,766 15 11	8.08	2,438 11 7	4.13	13,461
" 30, 1893.....	67,402 6 4	67,828 12 7	5,215 8 2	7.68	2,643 4 2	3.89	15,580
" 29, 1894.....	74,007 19 5	74,889 12 6	5,294 11 2	7.06	1,599 12 6	2.12	17,381
" 28, 1895.....	96,621 3 4	95,990 0 5	6,170 18 10	6.42	3,710 10 4	3.86	16,498
" 26, 1896.....	115,612 13 5	117,867 2 9	7,096 1 0	6.02	6,559 15 8	5.56	25,478
" 25, 1897.....	124,928 19 10	125,598 6 0	7,803 3 8	6.26	7,441 1 5	5.92	37,912
† " 31, 1898.....	126,976 9 5	126,248 5 6	8,720 14 3	6.90	7,924 17 1	6.27	36,287
" 30, 1899.....	126,483 11 7	127,600 4 9	8,615 11 4	6.74	10,141 7 6	7.94	33,761
" 29, 1900.....	145,271 4 5	144,258 8 4	9,048 11.10	6.27	9,805 6 4	6.79	40,986
" 28, 1901.....	147,767 2 11	150,135 13 10	9,911 5 7	6.60	6,835 14 8	4.55	41,335
" 27, 1902.....	154,140 10 1	155,381 15 7	10,052 12 3	6.47	4,129 10 0	2.66	51,090
" 26, 1903.....	157,920 18 1	160,325 9 8	10,766 8 0	6.71	3,468 17 3	2.16	62,248
† " 31, 1904.....	172,319 5 8	168,030 3 1	11,175 3 8	6.64	5,061 16 5	3.00	63,198
" 30, 1905.....	168,284 2 11	170,822 11 11	10,767 19 1	6.30	7,930 2 10	4.66	44,266
*June 30, 1906.....	84,204 18 10	82,943 18 7	4,841 6 10	5.83	5,427 17 9	6.54	35,562
Totals.....	1,886,784 15 1	1,848,163 12 0	122,011 11 1	6.60	85,769 17 5	4.64

* Half year.

† Fifty-three weeks.

CHANCELOT FLOUR MILL, EDINBURGH.

Year ended	Sales and Transfers.			Production.			Expenses on Production.			Rate per cent.	Net Profit.			Rate per cent.	Net Loss.			Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		
*Dec. 29, 1894 ..	23,102	14	7	38,609	14	5	4,592	10	6	11·89		1,348	17	6	3·49	51,096
" 28, 1895 ..	232,578	8	3	226,242	13	5	21,209	15	10	9·37		2,000	18	8	0·88	75,399
" 26, 1896 ..	297,675	19	9	305,071	0	2	25,952	17	2	8·50	6,894	16	2	2·26	50,438
" 25, 1897 ..	413,514	9	7	410,342	14	6	26,967	9	4	6·57	5,705	6	2	1·39	53,551
† " 31, 1898 ..	407,764	5	3	415,185	14	2	27,148	9	5	6·53	5,422	15	11	1·30	49,385
" 30, 1899 ..	330,707	4	1	329,484	16	0	25,406	17	5	7·71	4,557	19	2	1·38	62,017
" 29, 1900 ..	344,105	19	6	347,678	1	10	27,282	10	11	7·84	3,079	2	7	0·88	78,130
" 28, 1901 ..	401,267	5	1	395,456	7	2	28,119	18	0	7·13	6,298	11	4	1·59	26,127
" 27, 1902 ..	384,263	9	11	419,316	7	2	27,505	6	3	6·61	6,591	4	2	1·61	27,514
" 26, 1903 ..	394,404	2	0	397,313	2	0	26,473	15	2	6·65	12,987	3	8	3·26	49,218
† " 31, 1904 ..	392,745	14	8	397,291	11	6	27,436	8	9	6·93	29,325	14	0	7·35	71,170
" 30, 1905 ..	407,668	8	6	410,502	5	6	27,245	6	7	6·64	22,618	9	7	5·49	64,653
*June 30, 1906 ..	195,543	16	9	191,391	13	3	13,748	6	0	7·18	11,442	18	6	5·97	76,969
Totals	4,225,341	17	11	4,283,880	1	1	369,089	11	4	7·21	114,924	1	3	..	3,349	16	2
											3,349	16	2	..					
											111,574	5	1	2·34					

* Half year.

† Fifty-three weeks.

ETTRICK TWEED AND BLANKET MILL, SELKIRK.

Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Net Loss.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
*Dec. 26, 1896 ..	18,805 12 11	18,170 17 4	6,403 1 8	35·24	153 6 0	0·84	12,258
" 25, 1897 ..	30,119 3 3	29,982 19 3	10,455 18 11	34·87	443 15 4	1·48	15,292
† " 31, 1898 ..	34,804 3 0	40,166 14 7	10,480 9 3	26·09	804 16 2	2·00	12,475
" 30, 1899 ..	32,850 11 10	33,645 8 9	11,188 12 11	33·25	301 5 5	0·90	18,272
" 29, 1900 ..	33,579 13 4	34,034 6 0	11,628 19 9	34·16	1,004 8 9	2·95	18,406
" 28, 1901 ..	34,106 16 1	33,151 4 2	11,259 14 8	35·26	711 13 9	2·33	16,988
" 27, 1902 ..	37,761 8 9	39,888 5 9	13,167 10 9	33·07	1,777 8 8	4·38	24,175
" 26, 1903 ..	40,474 7 1	40,558 10 1	14,608 9 6	36·11	1,701 14 6	4·13	24,632
" 31, 1904 ..	37,552 12 3	37,852 5 3	13,886 18 11	36·67	393 16 8	1·03	25,886
" 30, 1905 ..	35,226 15 5	34,115 0 7	12,725 14 8	37·40	198 14 3	0·58	24,880
† June 30, 1906 ..	18,861 15 8	19,089 19 8	6,521 16 1	34·16	24 7 5	0·12	21,686
Totals	354,142 19 7	360,655 11 5	122,327 7 1	33·91	7,214 1 6 301 5 5	301 5 5
					6,912 16 1	1·91			

* Thirty-five weeks.

† Fifty-three weeks.

‡ Half year.

UNDERCLOTHING FACTORY.

Half Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 28th, 1901 ..	3,857 0 2	3,863 3 9	1,900 3 7	49.18	318 13 11	8.23	1,083
June 28th, 1902 ..	4,177 9 4	4,174 13 8	2,061 3 9	49.37	321 9 6	7.69	605
December 27th, 1902 ..	3,951 9 11	3,955 3 1	1,978 9 3	50.01	518 2 1	13.09	544
June 27th, 1903 ..	4,044 0 11	4,029 19 10	2,166 13 2	53.74	429 18 0	10.67	286
December 26th, 1903 ..	3,350 12 8	3,350 12 8	2,282 18 7	68.15	131 13 9	3.91	199
June 25th, 1904 ..	3,933 19 4	3,933 19 4	2,102 4 1	54.32	231 4 11	5.87	460
*December 31st, 1904 ..	3,424 18 6	3,424 18 6	1,924 5 3	56.17	216 15 0	6.31	141
" 30th, 1905 ..	6,658 13 7	6,658 13 7	3,666 7 5	55.05	718 8 6	10.80	425
†June 30th, 1906 ..	3,987 9 6	4,010 19 3	2,030 10 0	50.61	552 4 10	13.76	296
Totals	37,385 13 11	37,402 3 8	20,112 15 1	53.77	3,438 10 6	9.19

* Twenty-seven weeks.

† Half year.

FISH CURING WORKS, ABERDEEN.

Year ended	Transfers.	Expenses.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Net Loss.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 30, 1899	3,814 16 0	30 1 3	0.79	24 9 2	0.63	6
" 29, 1900	22,387 14 5	1,502 16 7	6.70	273 11 10	1.21	32
" 28, 1901	33,582 0 6	1,926 4 9	5.73	1,108 6 9	3.28	36
" 27, 1902	44,168 1 7	2,771 14 7	6.27	1,201 17 4	2.71	66
" 26, 1903	48,312 13 10	2,984 4 3	6.17	1,315 0 10	2.72	18
" 31, 1904	63,374 19 11	4,029 5 3	6.30	1,491 15 7	2.25	116
" 30, 1905	60,059 10 6	4,347 7 3	7.23	640 3 8	1.06	341
*June 30, 1906	33,806 19 6	2,262 10 3	6.69	354 4 3	1.04	457
Totals	309,506 16 6	19,854 4 2	6.41	6,320 0 3 24 9 2	24 9 2
				6,295 11 1	2.03			

* Half Year.

† Fifty-three weeks.

SOAP WORKS, GRANGEMOUTH.

Year ended	Transfers.		Production.		Expenses on Production.		Net Profit.		Rate per cent.		Net Loss.		Rate per cent.		Stocks.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.			£	s. d.			£	
*Dec. 25, 1897....	1,078	13 8	2,307	10 11	658	10 1	28 52	606	12 9	26 26	..	7,039	..
† " 31, 1898....	28,163	1 9	31,981	15 11	7,159	15 4	22 67	1,323	7 1	4 30	..	11,517	..
" 30, 1899....	37,669	16 11	38,753	16 7	8,524	10 5	22 14	796	13 3	2 54	18,590	..
" 29, 1900....	43,960	2 8	48,126	19 11	9,755	5 0	20 27	686	6 11	1 42	..	26,560	..
" 28, 1901....	50,819	9 10	54,387	14 5	9,132	7 0	17 0	1,650	10 8	2 82	21,592	..
" 27, 1902....	53,917	5 4	57,017	16 11	9,304	10 3	16 38	2,101	17 9	3 71	22,202	..
" 26, 1903....	48,621	10 2	46,534	3 8	8,875	19 5	19 58	4,211	8 0	10 69	..	14,682	..
† " 31, 1904....	44,353	14 3	48,500	4 10	9,906	18 8	20 46	928	11 10	1 31	..	16,289	..
" 30, 1905....	41,980	17 3	45,963	18 10	9,618	0 9	21 56	2,945	1 4	6 40	..	18,830	..
† June 30, 1906....	24,441	10 11	25,551	0 10	5,219	18 10	20 54	1,785	11 8	6 98	17,251	..
Totals	375,036	2 9	399,155	2 10	78,185	15 9	19 58	6,331	13 4	..	10,701	7 11
											6,334	13 4		
											4,366	14 7	1 09	..		

; Fifty-three weeks.

+ Half Year.

* Short Period.

JUNCTION FLOUR AND OATMEAL MILL, LEITH.

Year ended	Sales and Transfers. £ s. d.	Production.		Expenses on Production. £ s. d.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.		Rate per cent.	Net Loss.		Rate per cent.	Stocks. £
		£	s. d.			£	s. d.		£	s. d.		
Dec. 25, 1897..	76,698 7 1	84,479 19 3		6,145 6 10	7.23	42 6 11		0.09	11,746
* " 31, 1898..	153,869 9 2	152,903 19 5		11,597 14 1	7.64	1,979 0 9		1.29	17,683
" 30, 1899..	137,245 3 6	138,657 5 2		10,829 15 6	7.81	98 12 4		0.07	13,886
29, 1900..	139,289 15 11	140,317 11 1		11,548 8 3	8.23	1,514 8 2		1.08	17,298
" 28, 1901..	112,183 2 3	112,866 3 7		10,738 12 9	9.54	1,729 1 10		1.54	17,282
" 27, 1902..	163,489 5 4	162,558 5 7		12,246 0 2	7.53	3,602 7 5		2.21	10,666
" 26, 1903..	168,844 17 8	167,501 6 2		12,795 14 2	7.64	6,749 17 5		4.03	17,133
* " 31, 1904..	161,469 15 9	178,966 3 8		12,730 1 5	7.12	8,390 14 6		4.77	16,027
" 30, 1905..	160,516 17 5	165,769 7 6		12,197 5 7	7.36	5,541 13 6		3.35	13,524
† June 30, 1906..	82,178 13 2	80,117 7 9		5,685 5 6	7.09	1,393 2 2		1.74	16,170
Totals	1,355,780 7 3	1,384,137 9 2		106,514 4 3	7.69	29,062 4 3		..	1,979 0 9	
						1,979 0 9	
						27,083 3 6		1.95				

* Fifty-three weeks.

† Half Year.

BLADNOCH AND WHITHORN CREAMERIES.

Year ended	Transfers.	Expenses.	Rate per cent.	Net Profit.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 30, 1899	35,614 12 10	2,214 0 6	6·21	3,079 10 11	8·64	4,248
" 29, 1900	55,442 14 9	4,298 5 7	7·75	6,743 13 5	12·16	5,172
" 28, 1901	65,074 12 1	5,124 1 5	7·87	7,346 7 4	11·28	6,799
" 27, 1902	83,128 4 9	5,956 7 0	7·15	4,014 7 6	4·82	7,817
" 26, 1903	75,930 15 2	6,517 17 10	8·58	4,612 7 7	6·07	6,450
" 31, 1904	76,047 6 4	7,162 16 5	9·41	4,672 12 2	6·14	5,595
" 30, 1905	67,472 1 10	7,062 11 10	10·46	4,482 11 6	6·64	3,192
† June 30, 1906	35,756 9 10	3,398 14 11	9·50	2,530 5 3	7·07	5,563
Totals	494,466 17 7	41,734 15 6	8·44	37,481 15 8	7·58	..

° Fifty-three weeks. † Half Year.

DRESS SHIRT FACTORY, LEITH.

Half Year ended	Transfers.	Production.	Expenses on Production.	Rate per cent.	Net Loss.	Rate per cent.	Stocks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£
December 28, 1901	151 11 0	948 11 0	1,198 15 4	126.37	1,129 5 9	119.09	2,584
June 28, 1902	4,451 17 11	5,464 0 2	3,978 8 10	72.80	1,672 12 8	30.60	3,270
December 27, 1902	7,089 6 4	9,434 2 2	4,320 19 10	45.80	364 9 3	3.85	6,301
June 27, 1903	8,941 17 10	8,735 10 9	4,568 7 3	52.29	386 0 9	4.42	5,772
December 26, 1903	6,443 10 10	4,776 13 9	4,469 6 11	93.57	1,223 10 4	25.61	7,892
June 25, 1904	11,636 8 10	11,824 10. 5	4,599 13 7	38.89	*261 16 5	2.21	6,958
†December 31, 1904	8,711 4 2	10,233 8 8	5,032 7 0	49.17	434 13 3	4.24	8,863
" 30, 1905	23,230 13 7	25,005 9 9	10,630 0 5	43.30	830 3 0	3.87	8,259
June 30, 1906	14,453 6 1	12,909 18 8	6,092 7 8	47.19	*429 9 11	3.33	6,494
Totals	85,109 16 7	89,332 5 4	44,890 6 10	50.25	5,349 8 8	5.98	..

* Profit.

† Twenty-seven weeks.

EMPLOYÉS.

NUMBER OF EMPLOYÉS, SEPTEMBER 29TH, 1906.

DISTRIBUTIVE DEPARTMENTS.

		Collective Totals.
General Office	Glasgow	194
Grocery	"	178
Stationery	"	13
Potato	"	15
Cattle Buying	"	4
Coal	"	3
Drapery (Mantle and Millinery Workrooms included) ..	"	371
Boot	"	92
Furniture	"	135
Carting and Fodder	"	205
Waste	"	12
Cleaners	"	12
Miscellaneous	"	10
Dining-room	"	12
"	Shieldhall	14
		— 1,270
Leith—Warehouse		88
" Carting Department		59
Kilmarnock		25
Dundee		5
Enniskillen and Creameries		86
Edinburgh—Chambers Street		28
Greenock—Sugar Forwarding		1
London—Drapery Office		2
Winnipeg (Canada)—Wheat Buying		2
		— 296

PRODUCTIVE DEPARTMENTS.

Boot Factory, Currying, &c.	Shieldhall	1,007
" " Parkview	Glasgow	276
Clothing Factory (Ready-made)	Shieldhall	340
" " (Bespoke) and Caps	Glasgow	179
Shirt Factory	"	161
Underclothing Factory	"	108
Hosiery Factory	Shieldhall	165
Clothing " (Artisan)	"	175
Mantle Factory	Glasgow	64
Waterproof Factory	"	26
Umbrella Factory	"	10
Hat Factory	"	9
		— 2,520
Carried forward		4,086

NUMBER OF EMPLOYÉS, SEPTEMBER 29TH, 1906.

PRODUCTIVE DEPARTMENTS—continued.		Collective Totals.
Brought forward		4,086
Saddlers' Shop	Glasgow	11
Cabinet Factory	Shieldhall	298
Brush Factory	"	40
Tinware "	"	66
Engineering Department	"	71
Electrical Department	Glasgow	31
Cartwright Shop	"	29
Horse Shoeing	"	7
Printing Department	Shieldhall	350
Preserve Factory	"	181
Confection "	"	63
Coffee Essence Factory	"	36
Pickle Factory	"	32
Chemical Department	"	116
Tobacco Factory	"	143
Miscellaneous	"	13
Sausage Factory	Glasgow	28
Ham Curing	"	34
" "	Leith	13
Aërated Water Factory	Glasgow	36
" " "	Leith	8
" " "	Stirling	8
" " "	Dunfermline	11
Chancelot Mills	Edinburgh	99
Junction "	Leith	48
Regent "	Glasgow	80
Ettrick "	Selkirk	174
Dress Shirt Factory	Leith	172
Laundry	Barrhead	76
Soap Works	Grangemouth	76
Farm—Carntyne	Glasgow	4
Calderwood Estate	Lanarkshire	79
Creameries—Bladnoch and Whithorn	Wigtownshire	64
Fish Curing	Aberdeen	71
Cartwrights' Shop	Leith	4
Horse Shoeing	"	2
Saddler's Shop	"	1
		— 2,575
BUILDING DEPARTMENT.		
Tradesmen		306
Management		15
		— 321
Total		6,982

Bonus to Labour.

The payment of bonus, since its institution in 1870, has taken three different forms. Till 1884 employés received, on wages earned, double the rate per £ allocated as dividend on members' purchases. This arrangement was then replaced by one which set aside the double claim of the employé, and, recognising a difference between workers in the distributive and productive departments, established a differential rate. The distributive employés received the same rate of bonus as was the rate of dividend on members' purchases, and the rate of bonus to productive workers was determined by the net aggregate profit made in the manufacturing departments only. This arrangement continued till 1892, when the system of bonus payment was again revised. Hitherto the whole bonus allocated had been paid over; but the present system, which allows a uniform rate to both distributive and productive departments, requires that one-half of each worker's bonus be retained and put to his credit, forming a special fund, called the Bonus Fund. This capital bears interest at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, and is not withdrawable until the expiry of three months after leaving the service of the Society, unless with the consent of the Committee.

EMPLOYE-SHAREHOLDERS.

Simultaneously with the introduction of the present scheme of bonus, arrangements were made to permit of employés becoming shareholders in the Society. The number of shares held by one individual may range from five to fifty of twenty shillings each, and the paid-up capital bears interest at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum. By the rules of the Society, the shareholding employés are entitled to send one representative to the quarterly meeting, and one additional for every 150 employés who become shareholders. At the present time there are 523 shareholders, which permits of a representation of four at the business meetings of the Society.

BONUS TO LABOUR.

The following statements show the amount of bonus paid each year since 1870, and the total amount thus paid to employés, also the Bonus Fund and the Employé-Shareholders' Fund at June 30th, 1906:—

FIRST BONUS SCHEME.

				Amount.			Average Rate per £.	
				£	s.	d.	s.	d.
Quarter ending November 19, 1870.....				5	11	0	0 8
Year	"	"	18, 1871.....	40	10	0	0 10½
"	"	"	16, 1872.....	52	7	0	0 9½
"	"	"	15, 1873.....	90	1	8	0 9½
"	"	"	14, 1874.....	116	9	0	0 8½
"	"	"	13, 1875.....	109	15	4	0 8
"	"	"	4, 1876.....	108	13	4	0 8
"	"	"	3, 1877.....	121	10	0	0 8
"	"	"	2, 1878.....	147	17	0	0 8
"	"	"	2, 1879.....	203	3	0	0 9½
"	"	October	30, 1880.....	322	9	3	1 1
"	"	November	5, 1881.....	368	3	8	1 0
"	"	"	4, 1882.....	453	9	1	0 11
"	"	"	3, 1883.....	542	3	0	0 11½
"	"	"	1, 1884.....	484	2	6	0 9½

SECOND BONUS SCHEME.

Year ending		Distributive Amount.			Rate per £.		Productive Amount.			Rate per £.	
		£	s.	d.	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	s.	d.
October	31, 1885	483	13	1	0 6¾	—	—	—
December	25, 1886	873	0	6	0 6½	—	—	—
"	31, 1887	603	0	2	0 6¾	315	2	1	0 4
"	29, 1888 .. .	683	12	1	0 6¼	628	11	7	0 7
"	28, 1889	833	16	10	0 6½	1,016	14	10	0 8½
"	27, 1890	1,139	6	10	0 7	1,752	10	6	0 11
"	26, 1891	1,208	9	3	0 6¾	1,802	14	9	0 9
"	31, 1892	1,813	8	3	0 6½	2,320	11	4	0 9

BONUS TO LABOUR.

PRESENT BONUS SCHEME.

				£	s.	d.	Rate per £
Year ending December 30, 1893				3,775	15	0	0 6½
"	"	"	29, 1894	3,563	18	9	0 6
"	"	"	28, 1895	4,634	14	0	0 7½
"	"	"	26, 1896	5,965	17	9	0 7½
"	"	"	25, 1897	7,431	8	8	0 8
"	"	"	31, 1898	7,017	2	6	0 7
"	"	"	30, 1899	8,943	12	0	0 8
"	"	"	29, 1900	9,938	10	8	0 8
"	"	"	28, 1901	10,502	8	8	0 8
"	"	"	27, 1902	11,136	0	0	0 8
"	"	"	26, 1903	11,832	11	9	0 8
"	"	"	31, 1904	12,476	12	8	0 8
"	"	"	30, 1905	12,418	15	7	0 8
Half Year ending June 30, 1906				6,399	8	0	0 8

Total amount paid as bonus to June 30th, 1906 £134,677 12 11

Amount of Bonus Fund at June 30th, 1906 35,660 2 2

Employé-Shareholders' Fund at June 30th, 1906—523 employés holding
12,630 shares, with £10,469 paid up.



LIST OF CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES AND PRESIDENTS.
(Compiled by the Co-operative Union.)

No.	Year.	Date of Opening.	Where Held.	President of First Day.	President of Second Day.	President of Third Day.
1	1869	May 31	London: Society of Arts, John Street, Adelphi.	T. Hughes, M.P.....	A. J. Mundella, M.P.	W. Morrison, M.P.
2	1870	June 6	Manchester: Memorial Hall.....	W. Morrison, M.P.....	Rev. W. N. Molesworth, M.A.	J. T. Hibbert, M.P.
3	1871	April 10	Birmingham: Midland Institute....	Hon. Aub. Herbert, M.P.	C. Cattell.....	W. Morrison, M.P.
4	1872	" 1	Bolton: Co-operative Hall.....	T. Hughes, M.P.....	E. V. Neale.....	W. Morrison, M.P.
5	1873.	" 12	Newcastle-on-Tyne: Mechanics' Institute.	Joseph Cowen, jun. ..	W. Morrison, M.P..	T. Hughes, M.P.
6	1874	" 6	Halifax: Mechanics' Hall	Thomas Brassey, M.P.	W. Morrison	W. Morrison.
7	1875	Mar. 29	London: Co-operative Institute	Professor T. Rogers ..	T. Hughes, Q.C.....	W. Morrison.
8	1876	April 17	Glasgow: Assembly Rooms, 133, Bath Street.	*Professor Caird	G. Anderson, M.P....	James Crabtree.
9	1877	" 2	Leicester: Museum Hall	Hon. Auberon Herbert.	Lloyd Jones	Abraham Greenwood
10	1878	" 22	Manchester: Co-operative Hall, Downing Street.	Marquis of Ripon	Bishop of Manchester	Dr. John Watts.
11	1879	" 14	Gloucester: Corn Exchange	Professor Stuart.....	J. T. W. Mitchell ..	James Crabtree.
12	1880	May 17	Newcastle-on-Tyne: Bath Lane School-room.	Bishop of Durham....	R. S. Watson	H. R. Bailey.
13	1881	June 6	Leeds: Albert Hall	Lord Derby	T. Hughes, Q.C.....	James Crabtree.
14	1882	May 29	Oxford: Town Hall	Lord Reay	Councillor Pumphrey	George Hines.
15	1883	May 14	Edinburgh: Oddfellows' Hall	Rt. Hon. W. E. Baxter, M.P.	William Maxwell ..	John Allan.
16	1884	June 2	Derby: Lecture Hall	Sedley Taylor, M.A. ...	A. Scotton	Councillor Hartley.
17	1885	May 25	Oldham: Co-operative Hall, King St.	Lloyd Jones.....	F. Hardern.....	Lewis Feber.

LIST OF CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES AND PRESIDENTS—continued.

No.	Year.	Date of Opening.	Where Held.	President of First Day.	President of Second Day.	President of Third Day.
18	1886	June 14	Plymouth: Guildhall.....	Earl of Morley	A. H. D. Acland, M.P.	J. H. Young.
19	1887	May 30	Carlisle: Her Majesty's Theatre	G. J. Holyoake	Sir W. Lawson, M.P.	Councillor Rule.
20	1888	" 21	Dewsbury: Co-operative Hall	E. V. Neale	Marquis of Ripon ..	John Cave, jun.
21	1889	June 10	Ipswich: Public Hall.....	Professor A. Marshall.	B. Jones	George Hines.
22	1890	May 26	Glasgow: City Hall.....	Earl of Rosebery	William Maxwell ..	James Deans.
23	1891	" 18	Lincoln: Drill Hall.....	A. H. D. Acland, M.P.	D. McInnes	J. Hepworth.
24	1892	June 6	Rochdale: Bailie Street Chapel	J. T. W. Mitchell, J.P.	A. Greenwood.....	Councillor Cheetham.
25	1893	May 22	Bristol: Hall of the Y.M.C.A.	Councillor G. Hawkins.	J. Clay, J.P.	W. H. Brown, C.C.
26	1894	" 14	Sunderland: Victoria Hall	T. Tweddell, J.P., F.R.G.S.	J. McKendrick	W. Crooks.
27	1895	June 3	Huddersfield: Town Hall	Geo. Thomson.....	T. Bland, J.P.	Jas. Broadbent.
28	1896	May 25	Woolwich: Tabernacle, Beresford St.	B. Jones	B. Jones	B. Jones.
29	1897	June 7	Perth: City Hall	Wm. Maxwell, J.P.	Wm. Maxwell, J.P.	Wm. Maxwell, J.P.
30	1898	May 30	Peterborough: Theatre Royal, Broad- way.	D. McInnes.....	D. McInnes	D. McInnes.
31	1899	" 22	Liverpool: St. George's Hall	F. Hardern, J.P.....	F. Hardern, J.P. ..	F. Hardern, J.P.
32	1900	June 4	Cardiff: Park Hall	W. H. Brown.....	W. H. Brown	W. H. Brown.
33	1901	May 27	Middlesbrough: Town Hall	J. Warwick	J. Warwick.....	J. Warwick.
34	1902	" 19	Exeter: Theatre Royal	G. Hawkins.....	G. Hawkins.....	G. Hawkins.
35	1903	June 1	Doncaster: Corn Exchange	J. Shillito	J. Shillito	J. Shillito.
36	1904	May 23	Stratford: Town Hall.....	A. Golightly.....	A. Golightly.....	A. Golightly.
37	1905	June 12	Paisley: G. A. Clark Town Hall	W. Maxwell.....	W. Maxwell.....	W. Maxwell.
38	1906	" 4	Birmingham: Central Hall	J. C. Gray	J. C. Gray	J. C. Gray.

* Inaugural Address delivered by Prof. Halderson. † Inaugural Address delivered by Earl of Winchelsea. ‡ Inaugural Address delivered by Bishop of London.
 { Inaugural Address delivered by F. O. Greening. Inaugural Address delivered by Dr. Möller, Basel.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869,
TOGETHER WITH NAMES OF WRITERS.

(Compiled by the Co-operative Union.)

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
1	1869	London.....	Trade Unions and Co-operation	John Frearson.
2	"	"	The North of England Co-operative Wholesale Society	W. Nuttall.
3	"	"	Co-operation: How to Secure Safe Progress Therein.....	Dr. John Watts.
4	"	"	Associated Homes	Col. Henry Clinton.
5	"	"	Higher Aims of Co-operation and How to Realise Them.....	Dr. Travis.
6	"	"	Organisation and Co-operation	— Bray.
7	"	"	The Principles of Co-operation as Applied to Credit.....	R. B. D. Morier.
8	"	"	The Best Means of Making Co-operative Societies Mutually Helpful	Rev. W. N. Molesworth.
9	"	"	Self-supporting Educational Establishments	Ion Perdicaris.
10	"	"	Co-operative Libraries and the Principles on which they should be Formed and Managed.	W. E. A. Axon, F.R.S.L.
11	"	"	Industrial Partnerships	A. Briggs.
12	"	"	Co-operative Organisation and Propaganda.....	W. Pare, F.S.S.
13	"	"	National Co-operative Organisation	J. Borrowman.
14	"	"	Land, Labour, and Capital	E. T. Craig.
15	"	"	A London Co-operative Board	G. J. Holyoake.
16	"	"	The Claims of Co-operative Societies to the Use of Public Land for Agricultural and Building Purposes.	T. Hare.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—continued.

No	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
17	1869	London.....	Causes of Failure in Co-operative Stores.....	R. Harper.
18	"	"	" " "	N. Wilkinson.
19	"	"	" " "	J. C. Farn.
20	"	"	Hindrances to Co-operation	J. T. McInnes.
21	"	"	Co-operative Production	Malcolm Macleod.
22	"	"	Co-operative Trading Companies	J. Samuelson.
23	1870	Manchester	The Relation of Trade and other Societies to the Co-operative Movement.	Malcolm Macleod.
24	"	"	Co-operative Cottage Building	W. Nuttall.
25	"	"	Co-operative Newspaper	Lloyd Jones.
26	"	"	Co-operative Bank.....	W. Pare.
27	"	"	Prospects and Objects of Co-operation.....	E. V. Neale.
28	"	"	The Amendment of the Law relating to Co-operative Societies.....	J. M. Ludlow.
29	"	"	Co-operation and Education	T. Slater.
30	1871	Birmingham	The More Complete Organisation of the Co-operative Body	R. Bailey Walker.
31	"	"	Co-operative Insurance.....	A. Howard.
32	"	"	Co-operation and Trade Unions	H. R. Slatter.
33	"	"	People's Banks	R. B. D. Morier, C.B.
34	"	"	The Establishment of a Co-operative Bank	Anonymous.
35	"	"	Co-operative Industrial Colleges.....	W. Pare, F.S.S.
36	"	"	The State of the Law affecting Co-operative Societies	E. V. Neale

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—continued.

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
37	1871	Birmingham	London Co-operative Agency	R. Stephens.
38	1872	Bolton	Mutual Guarantee.	E. O. Greening.
39	"	"	The Check System.	J. Borrowman.
40	"	"	A Plea for Checking the Cash taken by Salesmen	J. Watt.
41	"	"	Co-operative Check System.	W. Nuttall.
42	"	"	Productive Co-operation	J. Borrowman.
43	"	"	Production of Flour by the Wholesale Society	— McPherson.
44	"	"	How to Dispose of the Surplus Capital of Co-operative Societies	F. Smith.
45	"	"	Co-operative Agriculture	R. Stapleton.
46	"	"	How the Rapidly Accumulating Capital of Co-operators may be Best Employed.	E. T. Craig.
47	"	"	Federative Trading	Lloyd Jones.
48	"	"	The Extension of Wholesale Co-operative Societies	J. Borrowman.
49	1873	Newcastle-on-Tyne	The Most Efficient and Practical Plan of Arranging the Powers and Duties of the Central Board.	E. V. Neale.
50	"	"	Principles and Methods of Voting	J. T. McInnes.
51	"	"	The Best Means of Promoting Co-operative Production	J. Borrowman.
52	"	"	" " " "	G. J. Holyoake.
53	"	"	Some Hints on the Problem of Co-operative Production.	J. M. Ludlow.
54	"	"	The <i>Co-operative News</i> .	T. Hayes.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—*continued.*

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
55	1873	Newcastle-on-Tyne	The Journalism of the Movement.....	G. J. Holyoake.
56	"	"	How to Increase Co-operation	P. H. Holland.
57	"	"	The Highest Form of Co-operation	Dr. Henry Travis.
58	1874	Halifax.....	Mode of Appointing the Central Board	E. V. Neale.
59	"	"	The Leakage Question	— Whiteley.
60	"	"	The Progress and Consolidation of Co-operation	Lloyd Jones.
61	"	"	The Future of Labour in Co-operation	E. O. Greening.
62	"	"	Co-operative Production	J. Borrowman.
63	"	"	A Plea for a Truly Co-operative Press	E. O. Greening.
64	"	"	The Best Form of the Co-operative Organ	J. T. McInnes.
65	"	"	Co-operative Propaganda.....	G. J. Holyoake.
66	"	"	Higher Education on Co-operative Principles.....	— Cunningham.
67	"	"	Equitable Distribution of Profits	J. Holmes.
68	"	"	Trade Unions in Relation to Co-operation	Lloyd Jones.
69	1875	London.....	The Schulze-Delitzsch System of Banking	W. Morrison.
70	"	"	Co-operation v. Individualism.....	R. Kyle.
71	"	"	Co-operative Production	E. O. Greening.
72	"	"	The Management of Productive Societies	F. Smith.
73	"	"	The Management and Best Form of Constitution to be given to Productive Societies, &c.	E. V. Neale.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—*continued.*

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
74	1875	London.....	The Present State of the Co-operative Movement and the Future before it	Bailey Walker.
75	"	"	Proposal of a National Industrial Orphanage.....	Dr. Rutherford.
76	"	"	Proposal for the Establishment of International Co-operation	G. J. Holyoake.
77	"	"	International Co-operation.....	Dr. Worrall.
78	"	"	Trade Societies' Funds and Co-operative Production	Lloyd Jones.
79	1876	Glasgow	The Policy of Paying High Dividends.....	E. V. Neale.
80	"	"	Organisation for Propaganda	J. Smith.
81	"	"	Co-operation and Trades Unionism	H. R. Slatter.
82	"	"	Hindrances to Productive Co-operation.....	R. Kyle.
83	"	"	How to Diminish the Risks and Increase the Benefits of Productive Co-operation.	W. Campbell.
84	"	"	Associated Healthy Dwellings; or, a New Plan of Practical Propaganda..	E. T. Craig.
85	1877	Leicester	Banking.....	T. Hughes.
86	"	"	A Special Means of Safe and Profitable Investment	W. Campbell.
87	"	"	The Accumulation of Capital	E. T. Craig.
88	"	"	How should Labour be Paid in Co-operation?	Lloyd Jones.
89	"	"	The Relation of Capital and Labour when engaged in Co-operative Production.	F. Smith.
90	"	"	Labour in Co-operative Workshops	J. Smith.
91	"	"	What Trade Unionists Might Do for the Worker through Co-operation ..	E. V. Neale.
92	"	"	Trade Unions and Co-operation	H. R. Slatter.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—continued.

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
93	1877	Leicester	Store Management	Lloyd Jones.
94	"	"	The Proper Position of Labour in the Co-operative Movement	R. Kyle.
95	"	"	The Place of the Labourer in Co-operation.	J. Greenwood.
96	"	"	The Failures of Industrial Partnerships	E. O. Greening.
97	"	"	Diffusion of the <i>Co-operative News</i>	G. J. Holyoake.
98	"	"	Re-establishment of Labour Exchanges	"
99	"	"	Educational Funds	G. Hines.
100	"	"	The Necessity of Co-operative Education, &c.	J. Holmes.
101	1878	Manchester	Working Men's Clubs	Hodgson Pratt.
102	"	"	Co-operative Friendly Society	J. Odgers.
103	"	"	Co-operation and Culture	J. H. Jones.
104	"	"	The Development, Promotion, and Benefits of Education	R. Kyle.
105	"	"	Voluntary Propagandist Efforts	E. V. Neale.
106	1879	Gloucester	The Co-operative Union: Its Work, Duties, and Machinery	J. Borrowman.
107	"	"	"	R. Kyle.
108	"	"	"	E. V. Neale.
109	"	"	Co-operative Production	J. Odgers.
110	"	"	Spread of Co-operation in Agricultural Villages, &c.	G. Hines.
111	"	"	"	W. H. Hall.
112	"	"	The Attitude of the Co-operative Movement to Private Trade	E. V. Neale.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—continued.

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
113	1879	Gloucester	A Co-operative Review, &c.	E. T. Craig.
114	"	"	"	R. Newton.
115	"	"	A Co-operative Orphanage	Dr. Rutherford.
116	1880	Newcastle-on-Tyne	The Co-operative Union	R. Kyle.
117	"	"	Productive Co-operation	W. Swallow.
118	"	"	Wholesale Co-operation	Lloyd Jones.
119	"	"	Store Management	G. Scott.
120	"	"	Co-operative Cottage Building and the Land Question	T. Thirlaway.
121	"	"	Co-operation and the Perils of Credit	G. Hines.
122	"	"	The Land	E. V. Neale.
123	"	"	Education in Connection with Co-operation	J. Holmes.
124	1881	Leeds	Surplus Funds	J. Smith.
125	"	"	"	J. Crabtree.
126	"	"	The Land Question in Connection with Co-operation	Lloyd Jones.
127	"	"	Co-operative Production	J. Hepworth.
128	"	"	The Fundamental Principles of Co-operation	A. Greenwood.
129	"	"	Manual of Auditing	R. J. Milburne.
130	"	"	Organisation and Education	J. Holmes.
131	"	"	The Constitution of the Central Board	H. R. Bailey.
132	1882	Oxford	The Banking Question	J. Crabtree.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—*continued.*

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
133	1882	Oxford	The Banking Question	T. Hughes, Q.C.
134	"	"	Co-operation and Agriculture	Rev. G. W. Kitchin.
135	"	"	The Education of Co-operators	Arnold Toynbee.
136	"	"	" "	B. Jones.
137	"	"	The Revenue of the Central Board	John Allan.
138	"	"	" "	G. J. Holyoake.
139	1883	Edinburgh	The Present Position and Future Development of Co-operation	A. H. D. Acland.
140	"	"	" " "	J. Lochhead.
141	"	"	The Banking Question	E. V. Neale.
142	"	"	Utilisation of Surplus Capital	Lloyd Jones.
143	"	"	" "	J. Lord.
144	"	"	The Best Means of Propagating Co-operation in Large Towns	J. McNair.
145	"	"	" " "	W. Nuttall.
146	1884	Derby	The Nationalisation of the Land	G. Purcell.
147	"	"	Co-operative Farming	D. Johnson.
148	"	"	Surplus Capital	W. T. Nutter.
149	"	"	" "	J. Hepworth.
150	"	"	The Economic Aspect of Co-operation	E. V. Neale.
151	1885	Oldham	The Limited Liability Movement in Oldham	F. Hardern.
152	"	"	Difficulties of Productive Co-operation	T. W. Fenton.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—*continued.*

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
153	1885	Oldham	The Rise and Progress of Co-operation in Oldham	L. Feber.
154	"	"	Education in Connection with Co-operation	W. Crooks.
155	"	"	The Future of the Working Classes	E. O. Greening.
156	1886	Plymouth	Co-operative Education	Miss Sharp.
157	"	"	"	J. H. Jones.
158	"	"	Co-operative Production	J. C. Gray.
159	"	"	"	W. Swallow.
160	"	"	The Common Sense of Co-operation	E. V. Neale.
161	1887	Carlisle	Co-operative Agriculture	D. McInnes.
162	"	"	"	W. G. Loveday.
163	"	"	Co-operative and Competitive Trade and Dividends	D. Thomson.
164	"	"	"	T. Ritchie.
165	1888	Dewsbury	What should be the True Relations between a Wholesale Distributive Society and the Productive Societies whose work it may sell?	G. E. Quirk.
166	"	"	What should be the True Relations between a Wholesale Distributive Society and the Productive Societies whose work it may sell?	C. Shufflebotham.
167	"	"	Ought Productive Works to be carried on as Departments of Wholesale Societies; if so, under what conditions?	C. Shufflebotham.
168	"	"	Ought Productive Works to be carried on as Departments of Wholesale Societies; if so, under what conditions?	E. Copland.
169	1889	Ipswich	The Credit System	W. Swallow.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—*continued.*

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
170	1889	Ipswich	Co-operation and International Commerce	Vaughan Nash.
171	1890	Glasgow	The Relations between Co-operation and Socialistic Aspirations	Miss M. L. Davies.
172	"	"	Cash and Check Systems	J. Thirlaway.
173	"	"	Co-operation in Ireland	Hon. H. C. Plunkett.
174	"	"	Labour, Capital, and Consumption	E. S. Bycraft.
175	1891	Lincoln	The Best Method of bringing Co-operation within the Reach of the Poorest of the Population.	Sydney Webb.
176	"	"	How Best to Consolidate and Improve the Position of Productive Societies.	W. G. Harrison.
177	"	"	The Best Means of bringing Co-operation and Trades Unions into closer union.	J. Arnold.
178	"	"	How Best to Utilise the Increasing Surplus Capital of the Movement.	A. Maskery.
179	1892	Rochdale	The Best Method of Consolidating and Federating Existing Productive Effort.	J. Deans.
180	"	"	The Duties of Co-operators in Regard to the Hours and Conditions of Labour.	Tom Mann.
181	"	"	How Best to Do Away with the Sweating System	Miss Beatrice Potter.
182	1893	Bristol	The Relation of Employés to the Co-operative Movement	W. Maxwell.
183	"	"	Overlapping, its Varieties and Dangers	C. J. Rockett.
184	"	"	The Position Co-operators ought to take with regard to the Social and Industrial Problems of the Present Day.	R. H. Tutt.
185	1894	Sunderland	Store Management	W. Openshaw.

LIST OF PAPERS READ AT CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESSES SINCE 1869—*continued.*

No.	Year.	Place of Congress Meeting.	Title of Paper.	Name of Writer.
186	1894	Sunderland	Co-operative Agriculture	W. Campbell.
187	1895	Huddersfield	Co-operation as Applied to the Agricultural Population and to Agriculture.	D. McInnes.
188	1896	Woolwich	The Relation of the Co-operative Movement to National and International Commerce.	A. Williams.
189	"	"	Are Modifications in the Rochdale System of Co-operation necessary to Meet the Needs of Great Centres of Population?	G. Hawkins.
190	1897	Perth	The Rights and Privileges of Citizens, with special reference to the Scottish Traders' Agitation against the Co-operative Movement.	W. E. Snell.
191	"	"	Superannuation of Co-operative Employés	R. J. Wilson.
192	1898	Peterborough	Co-operative Credit Banking	H. W. Wolff.
193	"	"	Co-operation in Agriculture	J. C. Gray.
194	1899	Liverpool	How to Make Co-operation succeed in Large Centres of Population	E. O. Greening.
195	1904	Stratford	Reserve Funds and Depreciation	Thos. Wood.
196	"	"	Utilisation of Educational Funds	W. R. Rae.
197	1905	Paisley	Is Co-operation Capable of Solving the Industrial Problem?	G. Bisset.
198	"	"	Land Monopoly, or Land Values Taxation	J. M. Knight.
199	"	"	Direct Representation in Parliament	Thos. Tweddell.
200	1906	Birmingham	Overlapping: its Evils and Remedies	Jas. Johnston.
201	"	"	Co-operation in its Relation to Industrial Developments at Home and Abroad.	H. W. Wolff.

THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION LIMITED.

OFFICES: LONG MILLGATE, MANCHESTER.

WHAT IS THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION?

IT is an institution charged with the duty of keeping alive and diffusing a knowledge of the principles which form the life of the Co-operative movement, and giving to its active members, by advice and instruction—literary, legal, or commercial—the help they may require, that they may be better able to discharge the important work they have to do.

WHAT HAS IT DONE?

THE greater part of the legal advantages enjoyed by Co-operators originated in the action of the Central Board of the Union, and the Central Committee which it succeeded. They may be summarised as follows:—

- (1) The right to deal with the public instead of their own members only.
- (2) The incorporation of the Societies, by which they have acquired the right of holding in their own name lands or buildings and property generally, and of suing and being sued in their own names, instead of being driven to employ trustees.
- (3) The power to hold £200 instead of £100 by individual members of our Societies.
- (4) The limitation of the liability of members for the debts of the Society to the sum unpaid upon the shares standing to their credit.
- (5) The exemption of Societies from charge to income tax on the profits of their business, under the condition that the number of their shares shall not be limited.
- (6) The authorising one Registered Society to hold shares in its own corporate name to any amount in the capital of another Registered Society.
- (7) The extension of the power of members of Societies to bequeath shares by nomination in a book, without the formality of a will or the necessity of appointing executors, first from £30 to £50, and now to £100, by the Provident Nominations and Small Intestacies Act, 1883, which also makes this power apply to loans and deposits as well as to shares.
- (8) The Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1871, which enables Societies to hold and deal with land freely.
- (9) The Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1876, which consolidated into one Act the laws relating to these Societies, and, among many smaller advantages too numerous to be mentioned in detail, gave them the right of carrying on banking business whenever they offer to the depositors the security of transferable share capital.
- (10) The Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1893.

The Union consists of Industrial and Provident Societies, Joint-Stock Companies, and other bodies corporate.

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No Society is admitted into Union unless its management is of a representative character, nor unless it agree—

- (1) To accept the statement of principles in the rules of the Union as the rules by which it shall be guided in all its own business transactions.
- (2) To contribute to the fund called the Congress Fund the annual payment following:—
 - (a) If the number of members of any such Society is less than 1,000, then the sum of 2d. for each member.
 - (b) If the number of such members exceeds 1,000, then, at least, the sum of 2,000d.

In estimating the number of members of a Society comprising other Societies, each such Society is considered to be one member.

The subscription is considered due, 1d. in the first and 1d. in the third quarter of each year, but may be wholly paid in the first quarter.

The financial year commences on January 1st in each year, and ends on December 31st following.

N.B.—Secretaries forwarding Cheques on account of the Union are requested to make them payable to the Co-operative Union Limited; Money Orders to A. WHITEHEAD, Cashier.



SUMMARY OF THE LAW RELATING TO SOCIETIES

UNDER THE

INDUSTRIAL AND PROVIDENT SOCIETIES ACT, 1893.

I. The Formation of Societies—

1. Application must be made to the Registrar of Friendly Societies, in London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, according to the case, on a form supplied by the office, signed by seven persons and the secretary, accompanied by two copies of the rules, signed by the same persons.

2. These rules must provide for twenty matters stated on the form of application.

3. No fees charged on the registration of a society.

N.B.—Model rules on these twenty matters can be obtained from the Registrar's office; and the CO-OPERATIVE UNION LIMITED, LONG MILLGATE, MANCHESTER, publishes, at the cost of 1½d. a copy, general rules, approved of by the Chief Registrar, providing also for many other matters on which rules are useful; and capable of being adopted, either with or without alterations, by a few special rules, with a great saving in the cost of printing.

The General Secretary of the Union will prepare such special rules, without charge, on receiving a statement of the rules desired.

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II. Rights of a Registered Society—

1. It becomes a body corporate, which can by its corporate name sue and be sued, and hold and deal with property of any kind, including shares in other societies or companies, and land to any amount.

2. Its rules are binding upon its members, though they may have signed no assent to them; but may be altered by amendments duly made as the rules provide, and registered, for which a fee of 10s. is charged. The application for registration must be made on a form supplied by the Registrar's office.

3. It can sue its own members, and can make contracts, either under its seal or by a writing signed by any person authorised to sign, or by word of mouth of any person authorised to speak for it, which will be binding wherever a contract similarly made by an individual would bind him.

4. It may make all or any of its shares either transferable or withdrawable, and may carry on any trade, including the buying and selling of land, and banking under certain conditions, and may apply the profits of the business in any manner determined by its rules; and, if authorised by its rules, may receive money on loan, either from its members or others, to any amount so authorised.

5. If it has any withdrawable share capital it may not carry on banking, but may take deposits, within any limits fixed by its rules, in sums not exceeding 10s. in any one payment, or £20 for any one depositor, payable at not less than two clear days' notice.

6. It may make loans to its members on real or personal security; and may invest on the security of other societies or companies, or in any except those where liability is unlimited.

7. It may make provision in its rules for the settlement of disputes between members and the society or any officer thereof, and any decision given in accordance with the conditions stated in the rules is binding on all parties to the dispute, and is not removable into any court of law.

8. If the number of its shares is not limited either by its rules or its practice it is not chargeable with income tax on the profits of its business.

9. It can, in the way provided by the Act, amalgamate with or take over the business of any other society, or convert itself into a company.

10. It can determine the way in which disputes between the society and its officers or members shall be settled.

11. It can dissolve itself, either by an instrument of dissolution signed by three-fourths of its members, or by a resolution passed by a three-fourths vote at a special general meeting, of which there are two forms—(A) purely voluntary, when the resolution requires confirmation at a second meeting; (B) on account of debts, when one meeting is sufficient. In such a winding up hostile proceedings to seize the property can be stayed.

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III. Rights of Members (see also *IV.*, 4, 5, 6)—

1. They cannot be sued individually for the debts of the society, nor compelled to pay more towards them than the sum remaining unpaid on any shares which they have either expressly agreed to take or treated as their property, or which the rules authorise to be so treated.

2. If they transfer or withdraw their shares, they cannot be made liable for any debts contracted subsequently, nor for those subsisting at the time of the transfer or withdrawal, unless the other assets are insufficient to pay them.

3. Persons not under the age of 16 years may become members, and legally do any acts which they could do if of full age, except holding any office.

4. An individual or company may hold any number of shares allowed by the rules, not exceeding the nominal value of £200, and any amount so allowed as a loan. A society may hold any number of shares.

5. A member who holds at his death not more than £100 in the society as shares, loans, or deposits, may, by a writing recorded by it, nominate, or vary or revoke the nomination of any persons to take this investment at his death; and if he dies intestate, without having made any subsisting nomination, the committee of management of the society are charged with the administration of the fund; subject in either case to a notice to be given to the Commissioners of Inland Revenue whenever the sum so dealt with exceeds £80.

6. The members may obtain an inquiry into the position of the society by application to the Registrar.

IV. Duties of a Registered Society—

1. It must have a registered office, and keep its name painted or engraved outside, and give due notice of any change to the Registrar.

2. It must have a seal on which its name is engraved.

3. It must have its accounts audited at least once a year, and keep a copy of its last balance sheet and the auditors' report constantly hung up in its registered office.

4. It must make to the Registrar, before the 31st of March in every year, a return of its business during the year ending the 31st December previous, and supply a copy of its last returns gratis to every member and person interested in its funds on application.

5. It must allow any member or person interested in its funds to inspect his own account and the book containing the names of the members.

6. It must supply a copy of its rules to every person on demand, at a price not exceeding one shilling.

7. If it carries on banking, it must make out in February and August in every year, and keep hung up in its registered office, a return, in a form prescribed by the Act; and it has also to make a return every February to the Stamp Office under the Banking Act.

The non-observance by a society of these duties exposes it and its officers to penalties varying from £1 to £50, which are in some cases cumulative for every week during which the neglect lasts.

The Gold Fields of South Africa.

BY J. HOWARD REED,

Vice-President and Honorary Secretary Manchester Geographical Society.

THERE is little doubt that the most precious of all metals, gold, has been obtained from parts of Africa since the dawn of civilisation, and it is probable that the southern portions of the continent contributed their quota to the gold using countries at a very early age. Some authorities believe that King Solomon's "gold of Ophir" came in large measure from the districts now known as Rhodesia. Be this as it may, for there is no reason to discuss the matter here, there is abundant evidence that large quantities of the precious metal have been extracted from these districts at some early period, although exactly when this took place, or by whom, may never be determined to the satisfaction of competent archaeologists.

We know from the reports of early travellers that small quantities of gold have been obtained by native workers in various parts of South Africa, mostly from the beds of streams and rivers, and also that the metal so obtained found its way in some measure to the civilised world outside the African continent.

The extraction of gold as a highly-organised industry in South Africa, it need hardly be said, is a development of quite recent times. As early as 1854 gold had been found in the district of the Witwatersrand (White Waters' Range), but little more seems to be known of this early discovery. The Boer Government of that day, being fearful lest a mining population should settle in their midst and disturb the pastoral pursuits of the people, forbade prospecting, and practically closed the country under their control to any mining adventures.

Prospectors, however, found their way into the districts north of the Limpopo, and outside the Transvaal territories (now known as Rhodesia), and in 1865 gold deposits in that country were discovered. In 1872 the Boers relaxed the restrictions against gold prospectors, and even went so far as to offer rewards for the discovery of payable gold fields. They at the same time declared that any minerals or precious stones discovered were to be State property. Shortly after this gold deposits were discovered in the neighbourhood of Lydenburg and at other places in the eastern districts of the Boer territories. Political disturbances within the

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Transvaal, the downfall of President Pretorius, the succession of President Burgers, native wars, State bankruptcy, British rescue and annexation, the Boer revolt and re-establishment of the Republic in 1881, all tended to prevent any material development of the gold industry. During the *régime* of the first British Administrator, Sir Theophilus Shepstone, further attention was paid to the Witwatersrand district, Australian experts being employed as prospectors. After two years' persistent work a Mr. Struben discovered the famous banket-reefs, which form the most extensive and permanent deposits of the Transvaal, or, indeed, of any other known gold fields.

The opening up of the territory north of the Limpopo by the South African Chartered Company under the influence of the late Mr. Cecil Rhodes led to the development of gold mining in various portions of the new country of Rhodesia, and year by year ever since an increasing quantity of gold has been produced from these fields. According to the Statistical Abstract for the British Empire last published, the output of gold from Rhodesia during 1904 reached a value of £969,000. During the same year, however, the Transvaal produced gold to the value of £16,028,883, and during 1905 the output reached over £20,000,000, which shows at a glance the enormous importance of the Transvaal mines. The districts of Lydenburg and Barberton within the Transvaal each contributed its quota, but the mines of the Rand about Johannesburg supplied the vast bulk of the enormous total.

It would naturally be impossible in a short article to deal at all adequately with the various gold-producing centres of South Africa. The gold field of the Rand district, however, is, as we have seen, by far the most important, and, moreover, abounds with labour and other problems which have excited public attention in this country. It will, therefore, be better to confine our attention to this world-famed Johannesburg industry.

Two years after Mr. Struben's discovery the Boer authorities proclaimed the district of Witwatersrand a public gold field, and other discoveries rapidly followed, with the result that a large mining population speedily gathered in the district, which, until the gold discoveries, had remained a practically bare, desolate, and unpopulated region. It is one of the marvels of recent times that within twenty years a large, well-built, populous, and progressive city, with an English-speaking population, should have grown up in a spot which previously had been desolate, and appeared to be practically without promise. No American or Canadian city of mushroom growth can tell a more remarkable or romantic tale than can Johannesburg, the "golden city" of South Africa.

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It may be said without exaggeration that the whole industrial, commercial, social, and political future, not only of the Transvaal, but of all the South African colonies, depends upon the satisfactory progress of the great industrial forces which the gold deposits have called into play. Mr. Henry Birchenough, the Special Commissioner sent to South Africa by the Board of Trade in 1903 to inquire into and report upon South African trade questions, remarks in his report:—

Whatever the prosperity of other colonies may be, it is the universal opinion in South Africa that the Transvaal is the pivot upon which the immediate commercial prosperity of the country turns. One has only to go to Johannesburg to realise that there lie the opportunities for a really great expansion of trade.

Again, in the same report, he says:—

It is difficult to speak of the eventual future of the Transvaal without appearing to use the language of exaggeration. Undoubtedly that future depends upon the mineral wealth of the colony. It is from the mines, and more particularly from the gold mines, that means must first of all be drawn for the development of the country and the expansion of trade. What the Transvaal is to the other colonies that the mines are to the Transvaal. Although the existing discoveries of gold on the Rand and in other parts of the colony are most remarkable, there is reason to believe they represent rather the opening than the closing of a great chapter in the history of gold mining.

The Witwatersrand gold reefs extend, from one extreme to the other, for a distance of more than sixty miles, and the field of the gold industry can only be likened to a succession of industrial works for practically the whole of this distance. Readers may imagine a continuous line of cotton mills, coal pits, or other industrial operations, extending for the distance mentioned for some idea of the picture presented by the Rand gold mining operations.

It is estimated by authorities that the precious mineral within the reach of practical mining in this field reaches the prodigious figure of some three thousand millions sterling. The gold-bearing strata crop out at the surface in places, but mostly lie at an angle of twenty degrees. Consequently the vast bulk of it can only be reached by sinking deep shafts and following the narrow seams below ground, much as is the case with ordinary coal mining. It is found practicable to follow the seams to a depth of about 5,000 feet, but the engineering difficulties and expenses of working preclude profitable operations much beyond that depth.

The process of gold extraction, since the development of the Rand mines commenced, has been brought to a high pitch of perfection, so that some 85 to 90 per cent. of the gold contained in the ore is now rendered available. The deep levels could not have been worked with any hope of profit had it not been for the discovery of the chemical method of gold extraction known as the cyanide process.

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The general *modus operandi* of mining and gold production may be described in a few sentences. Mining shafts are sunk until the beds of conglomerate containing the ore are reached. These are followed by drilling and blasting operations, the resulting rock or ore being hauled to the surface by mechanical means. The material is then broken by proper machinery into pieces of suitable size, and passed through a process of hand-sorting, by means of which the obviously worthless rock is rejected, and the ore or "banket" (a Dutch word meaning almond rock, which the ore resembles) is passed on to the stamps, where it is crushed to a fine powder. The resulting crushed material, mixed with water, is then passed through an extremely finely-perforated screen, having many hundreds of holes to the square inch, and then over copper plates coated with quicksilver. The quicksilver amalgamates with the gold, for which it has a close affinity. The copper plates are scraped from time to time, the combination of gold and quicksilver being collected and afterwards separated by heat, which vaporises the last-named metal, leaving the gold behind. This process extracts about 60 per cent. of the gold contained in the material dealt with. The pulp rejected by the operation just described is then subjected to a highly-refined chemical treatment. It is mixed with a weak solution of cyanide of potassium, the chemical action taking several days before the solution is ready for a further stage. In due course the cyanide of gold which has resulted is passed through zinc shavings, which operation releases the gold from the solution. The cyanide process extracts a further 30 per cent. of the gold, so that a total of practically 90 per cent. is finally recovered—a remarkable result when it is remembered that there is only one particle of gold to 60,000 particles of waste present in the original ore treated, where one ton of material contains scarcely ten dwts. of pure gold, the average being about eight dwts.

The array of machinery—boilers, engines, air compressors, mining, winding, and crushing plant, chemical apparatus on a gigantic scale, and other appliances—in which scores of millions sterling have been sunk, is so vast and valuable as to present one of the most remarkable industrial developments which the world has ever seen. It has been well said that "The Witwatersrand gold industry has been built up by engineering skill, inventive genius, and a vast amount of hard work."

In the early days of the Transvaal gold fields claims were rapidly pegged out and miners and speculators rushed to the scene, many of the latter to make large fortunes, while a very much larger number of people lost their savings by rash adventure. Many of the early mining companies were able to obtain properties and get to practical work at comparatively small initial expense, and these,

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of course, became most successful and paid large dividends upon their comparatively small original capital. It can be well understood that the early gold discoveries would be in the outcrop area, where gold production could be started at once without the enormous initial expenses connected with the sinking of shafts and the erection of costly winding machinery, which is essential where deep level working is undertaken. In the early days the Boer farmers would be willing to sell their land at a price which, although handsome compared with what its previous value had been, was dirt cheap as against the bloated prices to which successful gold mining forced up the properties at a later date. It is due very largely to these facts that some of the more fortunate companies still pay apparently enormous dividends, but which, it should always be remembered, are calculated upon the original capital, and not upon the actual money now invested in the various undertakings. It is only fair to remember, notwithstanding the amount of strong criticism to which the best paying Rand companies have been subjected, that this payment of enormous dividends is not peculiar to the Transvaal mining companies. Many concerns in Great Britain also pay immense dividends, and have enormously enriched those who were fortunate enough to take the risk of investing their money in them in the days when their success or otherwise was a pure matter of speculation. For instance, Guinness' £100 stock pays 20 per cent., and has done so for many years, and stock in this concern, which represents nominally £100, stands at the time this is written at £540. Brunner Mond's £1 shares stand at £5. 10s., notwithstanding the fact that nearly one-third of the capital has been handed back to the shareholders, who still receive enormous interest upon the whole sum originally subscribed. Coates', the big cotton people's, £1 shares stand at £5. 2s. 6d., and a dividend of about 30 per cent. is paid to the shareholders. Many other similar instances of enormous profits paid might be given, as any one with any knowledge of the subject well knows, but, on the other hand, just as many huge speculative ventures might be instanced where the experiences of the shareholders have been equally unfortunate.

The wealthy gold-mining capitalist may not be a person who merits any special consideration, but he at least deserves to be treated with the same fairness as speculators in other industries, whether they be in this country or in South Africa.

Gold mining is, of course, not only a legitimate industry, but, moreover, one that is necessary for the general welfare of the community, and those who engage in it are, in the broadest sense, deserving of the same fairplay which is usually observed towards other promoters of industry, whether it be the running of steamships,

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the manufacture of cotton, the manipulation of iron, or the lowly occupation of growing potatoes.

There is an idea prevalent among a certain section of badly-informed people that the Rand mines are wholly owned by a small group of mostly millionaire capitalists, generally of the Hebrew persuasion, and usually residing in Park Lane. It need hardly be said that, although a certain proportion of such people undoubtedly have great interests in the mining groups, the general body of shareholders in the gold-mining industry are just the same class of people who hold stock in every other conceivable kind of venture. The total body of shareholders in the Rand mines number nearly three hundred thousand, and it is evident that the vast bulk of these must be people who have invested their capital, be it small or great, in a stock which at the time of purchase they believed might bring them in a reasonable interest. Many of the pioneers have, of course, by far-sighted business ability and some considerable admixture of good fortune, managed to enrich themselves enormously, but in gold mining, as in other ventures, such people surely deserve the success which has attended their efforts.

Although some of the mines pay large dividends, there are others (and these are the more numerous) which pay no dividend at all. It should be remembered, too, that a Rand gold mine has a very short life—probably not more on an average than about sixteen years—so that during the producing portion of that period it is necessary that a particular mine should pay back the whole of the capital invested in it as well as reasonable interest during the time it is worked, as otherwise a loss would be incurred.

Again, although large returns are paid by some of the mines, there are more which have paid no dividends at all as yet. Out of more than two hundred mines working during the year ending June, 1905, only sixty-six had reached the producing stage, and of these only forty-four paid dividends, which averaged about 13½ per cent., not a very enormous return in view of the temporary character of the industry referred to above.

Mr. Birchenough in his report, previously quoted, draws attention to a peculiarity of the Transvaal mining industry which has a direct bearing upon the matter just referred to—the existence of producing and non-producing mines. It is the arrangement by which mines are controlled by a few great financial groups. If the list of these various groups (quoted in the report) is considered, it will be seen that several of the producing mines are coupled up, so to speak, with a number of others which are not, as yet, productive. “The effect of this system,” says Mr. Birchenough, “is undoubtedly to strengthen the credit of individual mines as purchasers of machinery, general equipment, and material.” The

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value of such an arrangement is at once apparent to all. The paying mines may be said to carry the non-productive ones upon their backs until they in turn become productive, and are then able to support the older ones which have, in the meanwhile, given up the bulk of the workable gold which they contain, and are fast approaching the derelict stage.

Attention might here be drawn to the fact that the Transvaal mining industry is not only of vast importance to the colony in which it is situated, and to South Africa generally, but is also of enormous value to the manufacturing districts of the mother country. Not only are vast quantities of foodstuffs, clothing, and general stores required by the populous hive of busy workers—white, black, and yellow—employed in the mines, but the equipment and maintenance of the mining works demands large quantities of machinery and a continuous supply of stores, most of which are manufactured in this country. Anything which interrupts or retards the progress of the Transvaal industry must, of necessity, react upon industrial efforts at home, and cause a baneful disturbance of our commercial life. This will be readily apparent when it is mentioned that many millions of money—probably from twenty to twenty-seven—have been spent in Great Britain upon the machinery with which the mines are equipped, and that it has been estimated that, provided the progress of the industry since the war is continued and sufficient labour is available, the next dozen years will witness the spending of at least forty millions sterling in new developments and machinery equipment.

The Transvaal gold mines are what are known technically as "low-grade" mines. That is to say, the quantity of pure gold obtained per ton of rock mined is very small indeed as compared with that produced in any of the other well-known gold fields of the world. Mr. Lionel Phillips, dealing with this point in his work "Transvaal Problems," says:—

Careful analysis of the results obtained by sixty-three companies shows that, from their inception up to the date of issue of their balance sheets in 1903 and 1904, they had together crushed 39,364,671 tons, which produced 42s. 11d. at a working cost, including depreciation of machinery and plant, of 30s. 11d. per ton, leaving 12s. per ton profit.

If the following table (also quoted from Mr. Lionel Phillips' work) is read in conjunction with the quotation just given, it will be seen that the production of gold, per ton of ore dealt with, in the gold fields of either Australia, India, or the United States is very much larger than the forty-two shillings odd which the same weight of ore yields in the Transvaal, and a comparison of the figures will show at once what is meant by the term "low-grade" as applied to the Transvaal.

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	Per ton.
	s. d.
Queensland (Mount Morgan)	109 10
„ (Charters Towers Field)	103 7
„ (Gympie)	102 9
„ (Croydon)	68 11
„ (Ravenswood)	60 10
„ (Etheridge)	75 3
West Australia (Great Boulder)	102 0
„ (Kalgoorlie)	140 0
„ (Lake View)	120 0
India (Mysore)	108 7
„ (Champion)	107 3
„ (Ooregum)	83 5
„ (Nundydroog)	97 5
United States—Cripple Creek (Portland)	200 6
„ Nevada (Comstock)	205 4
„ Colorado (Camp Bird)	127 9

It should be mentioned that the cost of production in all the districts named is very much the same as in the Transvaal. It is from a shilling to two shillings per ton more in Australia and the United States, where practically all white labour is employed, but it is quite evident that the mining in those fields is attended with very much less difficulty than is the case in the Transvaal, as otherwise the cost of production with such expensive labour would be very much heavier. In the gold mines of India the cost of production is less than in the Transvaal, due jointly to easier working and to the employment of cheap native labour.

It will be gathered from what has been said above that not only are the mines of the Rand very much less profitable than those of other gold fields, but that any material increase in the working costs will very seriously reduce and in many cases wholly absorb the profits made. It is manifest that neither gold nor any other article is worth producing if its production costs more or even as much as its ultimate market value.

The real wealth of the Rand gold field is due to its vast extent and to its regularity of production rather than to the quantity of gold which is contained in a given quantity of ore. If South Africa had a white population only, with the prices of commodities as high as they are, the Rand gold fields as a whole could not have been worked as has been and is now the case. It is doubtful if even the richest of the mines could have been worked at a profit; but in any case the enormous output of gold of the past twenty years, and the consequent advantage of South Africa and the Empire at large, would have been quite impossible.

South Africa, it should always be remembered, is a black man's rather than a white man's country. The native population outnumbers the white by six or eight to one. The standard of living and needs

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of the Kaffir, too, are very much lower than those of the poorest type of European. These two facts settle once and for all two primary economic conditions which have a direct bearing upon the employment of white men in the unskilled labour of the colonies, and determine the scale of wages which can be paid for the same. All the unskilled and menial labour in the sub-continent is performed by the Kaffir at a wage which the higher scale of civilisation and standard of living of the white renders absolutely impossible to him, not to mention the greater dignity of the higher race, which is a very real thing indeed in South Africa, although scarcely understood or appreciated by the mass of people in the mother country. So low is the standard of the Kaffir, whether it be in matters of housing, feeding, or clothing, that the most abject of unskilled labouring men from England find themselves by contrast members of an aristocratic class immediately they land in the sub-continent.

These being the facts, it is obvious that Englishmen cannot compete with Kaffirs in performing unskilled labour, simply because they cannot live on the wages which amply suffice for the needs of the native. The cost of house rent and of commodities (food, clothing, &c.) in the Transvaal is so heavy that it is computed that a labouring man from England cannot live, at a corresponding standard of comfort to that to which he is accustomed at home, under £15 per month, while a married man with three children would require at least £24. 10s. per month. As having a bearing upon this point, the following prices of commodities given in Mr. Birchenough's report may be of interest:—

	English.			Transvaal.	
	s.	d.		s.	d.
4lbs. Bread.....4d. to	0	5½	1	0
7lbs. Oatmeal	0	10	3	6
7lbs. Flour	0	10	1	9
1lb. Tea	1	6	2	6
1lb. Coffee	1	3	2	0
1 quart Fresh Milk.....	0	4	0	9
1lb. Butter	1	2	2	0
7lbs. Sugar	1	2	2	4
14lbs. Salt	0	7	3	6
1 dozen Eggs (cooking)	0	10	3	0
1lb. Bacon	0	8½	1	4
1lb. Cheese	0	8	1	6
1lb. Jam	0	4	1	0
14lbs. Potatoes	0	11	3	6
1lb. Frozen Meat6d. to	0	8	1	0
7lbs. Onions.....	0	11	3	6
100lbs. Coal.....	1	2	3	6
1 gallon Paraffin.....	0	8	2	0
1lb. Candles.....	0	4½	0	9
½ gross Matches	1	0	3	0

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It will be seen from these figures that living in the Transvaal under such conditions is a very different thing—on the ground of expense of food, &c.—to what it is at home. When we turn to house-rent we find a similar (or even worse) condition of things. Quoting Mr. Birchenough's report again, we find he says:—

Probably the largest item in domestic expenditure in Johannesburg, Pretoria, and Bloemfontein is house-rent. Speaking generally, the rents at present paid in Johannesburg for houses are at least six or eight times as high as would be paid for similar houses in an English manufacturing town. This is partly to be explained by the fact that the demand is in excess of the supply, but it is also to be accounted for by the dearness of imported building materials, and the high rates of wages paid to bricklayers, carpenters, plasterers, &c.

From the early days of the Transvaal gold industry the full development of the mines has been hampered and impeded by various restrictions, both artificial and natural. It is impossible to deal with all of these in any detail in this article, but the reader may be reminded that the complicated and inequitable gold law of the Boer Republic pressed with undue severity upon small capitalists, and indirectly played into the hands of speculators and wealthy combines, while at the same time it enabled unscrupulous Government officials and others to enrich themselves. The dynamite monopoly also pressed both hardly and unfairly upon the gold-mining industry, and enabled a few fortunate and unprincipled people to amass large fortunes. The railway policy pursued by President Kruger likewise put serious obstacles in the way of the mining community, and enabled a few outside foreigners and certain officials to exploit the commercial classes for their own purposes. The maladministration, by easily-bribed officials, of the laws (which on paper were satisfactory) which regulated the traffic in strong drink also led to much illicit drinking, and caused very serious trouble among the native labourers engaged in the mines, to the great detriment of the industry as a whole. These are some of the artificial restrictions just referred to; but there was also (and still is) one great natural difficulty which tended to prevent progress, viz., the native labour question. With this we can deal at somewhat greater length, although by no means exhaustively.

It has been pointed out before that the native population is many times over more numerous in South Africa than is that of the white, and that all menial and unskilled work in the sub-continent is performed by the native. This is equally true of either domestic, farming, or manufacturing life; and all British settlers in the colonies soon find out the truth of the statement, whatever their views may have been with regard to it before leaving the homeland.

The fewness and elementary character of the natives' wants enable them to work for very small wages, which renders white

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competition impossible, even if the question of dignity of race did not enter into the matter so largely as it unquestionably does. Not only so, but these small requirements allow natives to earn sufficient in a few months to enable them to live in idleness for the remainder of the year. It has never been the practice for the individual Kaffir to work in the mines for any lengthened period. Generally he engages himself for three or six months at a spell, taking long rests between the working periods. These periods of rest afford an opportunity to the Kaffir to return to his kraal or village, where he is enabled to live a life of absolute idleness. His savings during his working period permit him to buy cattle, and, as opportunity offers, to exchange them for native girls or wives, who cultivate his mealie patch, grow his tobacco, tend his cattle, and minister to the very few wants of their lord and master, they being the virtual slaves of South Africa. This is a condition of things which is very well understood by those who have any experience of the sub-continent or of native life in the South African colonies.

The practice above described, and the fact that about 50 per cent. of the Kaffirs live in native reserves, and do not find it necessary to engage themselves as labourers, makes it necessary for the mining organisations to recruit very widely in order to obtain the labourers required. Although Kaffirs have been brought from all the territories surrounding the Transvaal, the full number required has never been obtained even in the most flourishing times before the war. The native labourers recruited from outside districts have come in very largely from the Portuguese territories, and non-British areas seem to have supplied the bulk of those obtained. According to the Report of the Native Affairs Commission, 1903-5, the proportion of labourers drawn from the British South African territories only reached about 15 per cent. of the whole of those employed.

The dearth of unskilled labour available for the mines was very much accentuated as a consequence of the war. Although before the unfortunate struggle for supremacy between the Boers and the British took place there had not been as many labourers available as were required, the steady progress of the industry and the constant recruiting had brought together such a body of Kaffirs as permitted the industry to reach the high standard of production which had been attained in 1898.

The long three years' struggle, however, practically put a stop to the mining industry, and scattered the labourers who had been engaged in it. While the war prevailed thousands of them took service with the British army at, for them, very high wages. They were engaged as drivers of teams of mules and oxen, in

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digging trenches, and in general labouring work—acting, in short, as the literal “hewers of wood” and “drawers of water” for Lord Roberts’ forces. Consequently, on the conclusion of the war enormous numbers of these men had quite large sums of money in their hands—from £50 to £60 was no uncommon sum. Banks and all civilised forms of investment are unknown to them, and, therefore, the only thing they could do with their wealth was to take it to their kraals and invest in more cattle and more wives, and to settle down to live their ideal life at their ease, in many cases for the rest of their natural lives.

The lack of labour, it will be readily seen, was much intensified by the circumstances described when the mines were reopened on the conclusion of peace, it being absolutely impossible to get all the existing mining machinery to work pending an increase in the supply of unskilled labour. The result was much distress on the Rand, thousands of white skilled miners and mechanics of every grade being prevented from resuming work.

The lack of native labour, brought about as above described, is probably only temporary. The peculiar methods of investment referred to, and the idle lives which follow, will, in the natural course of things, tend to a great increase in the native population. The peaceful conditions imposed on all the native territories by the presence of the British flag and British rule, which prevent intertribal native wars, will also naturally foster an increase of population. As time passes, a new generation of Kaffirs, without the riches of their fathers, will be available for supplying the demand of the unskilled labour market. As these are employed in greater numbers, the more costly Chinese labourers who have been introduced will, by a natural process, disappear. It may be mentioned that during the past two years the supply of Kaffir labourers has much increased, either because a number of them have spent all their savings, or because they are beginning to realise that their places can be easily filled by Chinese.

An impression got abroad, some little time back, that the primary reason for the dearth of native labour after the war was because the mining companies reduced the wages which had previously been paid to the Kaffirs for unskilled work. It is, however, only fair to the mining authorities to say that there is no good evidence of this. On the contrary, the wages seem to have been increased rather than reduced, as will be evident from the following figures. The monthly average rate of wages paid to Kaffirs during 1898 (the year before the war) was £2. 7s. 1d.; during 1901–2 (the period of the war, when the Boers worked the mines), £1. 6s. 8d.; the last half of 1902 (first six months after the war), £1. 12s. 9d.; first half of 1903. £2. 2s. 5d.; and at the

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end of 1903, £2. 14s. It will be seen that the wages dropped to their lowest level during the Boer *régime*, and began to rise immediately on conclusion of the war, and continued to increase until they reached a figure considerably higher than they had ever been at before. It must be remembered that the wages quoted are paid over and above the cost of housing and feeding, which expenses are also met by the employers.

The conclusion of the war found a number of British time-expired men in South Africa who desired to remain in the country provided they could obtain suitable employment. The authorities of one of the richer groups of mines made an experiment in the employment of some of these men as unskilled labourers in the works under their control. Much discussion has been raised by this experimental measure, some contending that it proved that white men might be employed in the unskilled work of the mines with success. A calm consideration of the facts, however, compels one to conclude that the experiment can in no sense be regarded as satisfactory, and shows that even the richest mines could not be carried on profitably with only white labour, and proves that to work the poorer ones in this manner is quite out of the question. One of the great difficulties which arose during the experiment referred to was the fact that the white unskilled labourers could not be depended upon to work regularly, and the dislocation caused by this irregularity was as great a hindrance to the progress of the particular mines as was the increased working costs which the high pay of whites brought about. In the group of mines referred to it was found that during the year 1904, although 5,818 white unskilled labourers were employed in the aggregate, the average number working at one time was only 474, so that only about one in twelve of the total was to be depended upon. In other words, in order to have 474 at work day by day a total of 5,818 had to be engaged. The principal reason for the short period for which these men remained at their work was that white men (or, at any rate, Englishmen) for racial and social reasons will not work side by side, and at the same class of work, as a Kaffir. The following quotation from a report by Mr. R. Raine, the Manager of the Village Main Reef Limited, and who succeeded Mr. Cresswell, is interesting as having a distinct bearing upon the matter just considered. He says that on taking over the management—

I found the number of unskilled whites employed underground amounted to 126, who were chiefly working as helpers on machine drills at a daily wage of 8s. 6d. on stoping and 10s. on development. I made no alteration of this method of working during the first month I was here, but when I found at the end of the month that the wages earned by the skilled miner at contract-prices fixed by the previous management averaged only 15s. 2d. per shift as against the usual day's rate of 20s. per shift, I felt that a change was imperative, and

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that the system of paying the unskilled helpers in many cases more than the skilled man in charge was resulting in the best of the skilled miners leaving for work elsewhere. . . . It was soon apparent that there was considerable antipathy on the part of the skilled white miners to the class of men appointed to assist them on machines, and it was not infrequently the case that the skilled miner would have many changes in his helpers during one month, which greatly hindered good work being done.

Perhaps the one reason of the constant change of helpers was that they were made to feel that they were degrading themselves by doing work which was usually performed by Kaffirs.

Mr. Raine goes on to say :—

I find that from January to September (inclusive) last year the average number of unskilled whites employed underground was 102, but to maintain this number 947 men were engaged, who worked on an average only twenty-five days.

Mr. Raine says further :—

After an experience of years on these fields I am of the firm opinion that white men will not be found to perform regularly and satisfactorily work which the customs of South Africa have always considered ought to be done by the coloured races.

With regard to the question of the ability of white men to perform the unskilled labour in the mines there seems to be considerable misunderstanding. White men have tried their hands at the work, and have proved that—so far as physical effort is concerned—they are quite able to do what is required. This is shown by the paragraphs quoted above, and it has also been proved by other experiments. Mr. A. Mond, M.P., paid the passages of five labouring men who went to the gold fields of the Transvaal to take up unskilled labour in the mines for six months. They succeeded in their task, and undoubtedly showed that white men, and Englishmen, can perform the tasks which fall to the lot of the unskilled labourer. This, however, is not the real point at issue. The fact that Englishmen are physically able to perform the work does not prove that the mines can be worked with white unskilled labour. The question is, as before stated, primarily one of economics; and, in the second place, is a social and racial matter. Mr. Mond's labourers were paid 10s. per day for their work, and they were kept apart from Kaffirs, so were not exposed to the all-potent distaste which white men have to working alongside of natives. They were, moreover, not engaged in the Rand mines at all, but worked at Barberton, in the Eastern Transvaal, a different part of the country altogether, many miles away from the Rand, and where no Chinese have been introduced. The work they were occupied with was not that of unskilled labour in deep mines, but merely surface work, which never took them deeper than forty-five feet from the surface. The facts remain that the Rand mines as a whole could not be worked at all if all the

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unskilled labour cost 10s. per day, and that white men will not, as a class, work alongside of Kaffirs at the same kind of work. It may be added, too, that it would obviously be unfair to pay white men 10s. per day for work which Kaffirs can do equally well at considerably less, even though the low-grade character of the mines and the very real social and racial distinctions between black and white did not exist.

As bearing upon the points just dealt with, a statement made a few months back by Mr. Jas. Reid, a practical miner and trades unionist from Johannesburg, may be noted with interest. He says:—

Unskilled white labour is an impossibility in South Africa, owing to the great cost of living. Assuming that you export some thousands of unskilled whites, it would be utterly impossible, even if the dividends paid by the mines to-day were completely absorbed, to pay white men a decent living wage. This question of unskilled labour is a most dangerous one from a trades unionist standpoint, as it would inevitably result in a lowering of the status of the skilled artisan.

The dearth of native labour which existed on the conclusion of the war, and the distress which it caused among the skilled workers, who, in the absence of helpers, could not recommence work, became a very serious matter indeed, both to the population of Johannesburg and the Government authorities. The increase of Kaffir wages to a higher figure than that which prevailed before the war and a vigorous recruiting activity both failed to bring up the supply to the number necessary. The recruiting agents exerted their influence and extended their efforts into more distant portions of the African continent than had ever been touched before, but without satisfactory result. They succeeded in obtaining a large contingent of labourers from the Nyasa region (British Central Africa), but this experiment proved unsatisfactory. It was soon found that the natives of a tropical district were unable to stand the more rigorous climate of the Transvaal, and very soon after the arrival of the first batch a considerable proportion of the new comers were in hospital, suffering from pneumonia and other similar complaints. Proposals were also advanced for the recruiting of natives in Uganda and British East Africa, but this idea happily fell through. It was pointed out that the same climatic conditions which rendered the Nyasa native unsuitable applied equally, or even more strongly, with those from districts nearer to the Equator. Another great objection to the bringing of labour from the more northern colonies into the Transvaal is the fact that the particular districts themselves require all the labour available within them for the agricultural and other developments which are taking place locally. It will be remembered that labour in East Africa was so scanty when the Uganda Railway was constructed that it was necessary to import labour from British India.

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In connection with this labour difficulty it was suggested that if it was impossible, on the ground of cost, to employ British unskilled labourers in the mines, it might be possible to utilise hardy whites, such as Italians and other Europeans, as is done in America in the quarries and other similar industries. One very strong objection to this would have been the fact that the importation of low type European labour would have resulted in flooding the new colony with the riff-raff of Europe, the very class of people whom of all others it is most desirable to keep out. The men once there would have come to stay, with the result that the Transvaal would have received a very unsatisfactory cosmopolitan, but un-English, tone, which would have most seriously affected its future development on British lines, would have acted against the fusion of British and Dutch blood and sympathy which is so desirable, and might ultimately have lost us the colony altogether. If European labour of this type had been imported it might have assisted somewhat, but it would by no means have solved the labour problem. It would have been almost as costly as British labour, could such have been obtained, and, as has been suggested above, it would certainly have been disastrous from a political and Imperial point of view.

When the difficulties of obtaining sufficient native labour were realised by the Transvaal Government a Labour Commission to inquire into the whole matter was appointed. This was composed of thirteen prominent citizens of the Transvaal, having special aptitudes, experience, and reputation to fit them for so important a work. They sat for some months taking evidence having a bearing on the question. In November, 1903, they presented a report which was signed by eleven of the thirteen, the general terms of which, Mr. Lionel Phillips says, were to the effect:—

1. That the demand for native labour for agriculture in the Transvaal is largely in excess of the present supply, and as the development of the country proceeds this demand will greatly increase.
2. That the demand for native labour for the Transvaal mining industry is in excess of the present supply by about 129,000 labourers, and, whilst no complete data of the future requirements of the whole industry are obtainable, it is estimated that the mines of the Witwatersrand alone will require within the next five years an additional supply of 196,000 labourers.
3. That the demand for native labour for other Transvaal industries, including railways, is greatly in excess of the present supply, and will increase concurrently with the advancement of mining and agriculture.
4. That there is no adequate supply of labour in Central and Southern Africa to meet the above requirements.

The two gentlemen (Messrs. J. W. Quinn and P. Whiteside) who did not sign the report summarised above presented a minority report, the general effect of which was to object to the

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findings arrived at, and to express the opinion that the shortage of labour was "largely due to temporary and preventable causes." It may be pointed out, as showing that the minority report was not in accordance with the views of the public of Johannesburg, that when Mr. P. Whiteside stood for re-election to the Municipal Council of the city shortly afterwards he was not returned, although every other member of the previous nominated Council was re-elected. The other gentleman, Mr. Quinn, has, in the light of later experience, modified his views, and has made a public statement to that effect in Johannesburg.

The continued depression which prevailed in Johannesburg and all along the Rand due to the lack of native labour soon became a very serious matter indeed. Thousands of miners and other skilled workers in the gold industry continued out of employment, while other classes in turn were equally affected. Distress and poverty were rife among the people, and the public spirit was stung into activity. The finding of the Labour Commission showed the Johannesburg officials and populace that there was no prospect of the required labour being obtained in the country. This brought about the agitation which stimulated sympathy for the proposal, which had already been made, that Asiatic labour should be imported, under certain restrictions, to supplement the available Kaffirs. The prevailing stagnation it was felt was not only seriously retarding the progress and prosperity of the Transvaal colony, but was, in addition, adversely affecting the whole of South Africa. It was important, if the gold industry was to be saved from complete destruction and the Transvaal colony from disaster, that something should be done, and done quickly. Some of the Boers; who have little sympathy with what they consider the grandmotherly treatment of natives practised by the British, would have solved the problem by compelling the natives to work in the mines, but this, of course, was a measure foreign to British ideas, and altogether out of the question. It was at this juncture that the mining authorities and the people most interested turned their attention seriously to the project of obtaining the additional labour they required from Asia.

It is well to remember that the introduction of Asiatic labour into a British colony to supply a local necessity is no new thing, and it is, therefore, somewhat strange that it should have been so strongly opposed by many people in England. Doubtless the vast majority of these opponents are thoroughly sincere in their opposition, but it is a question whether large numbers of them have not been more influenced by sentiment than by a clear and true comprehension of the facts. It is our duty on this occasion to try to take an impartial view of the whole matter in the light of the

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facts set forth in the preceding paragraphs, and of the demands of the people of all classes on the spot, who are better able to judge of what is required than is the average Englishman living 7,000 miles away, and possessed of no intimate knowledge of the actual facts.

As before stated, the introduction of Oriental labour into a colony is no new thing. In the old Dutch days Malays and Javanese were brought into Cape Colony for special purposes, and their descendants are still to be found there. Large numbers of Madras coolies are resident in Natal, many of the most successful industries in the "Garden Colony" being dependent upon their labour. When the Uganda Railway was constructed British India was called upon to supply the labour required. Asiatics have been introduced into the colonies of Trinidad and Nicaragua under similar, though more drastic, ordinances to that which applies to the Transvaal, while Canada and Queensland and other places have also found it necessary to make use of Chinese labour. The United States authorities are contemplating the introduction of Chinese coolies for the construction of the Panama Canal, and, indeed, it is doubtful if that stupendous work can ever be completed without such labour. The development of successful cotton growing in the various East and West African British colonies is very likely to demand the assistance of cheap Chinese labour, to supplement the native Africans where there proves to be a dearth of such, and it must be obvious that it will be physically and financially impossible to send British labourers to engage in the industry, which will be in competition with the cheap black labour of the American fields.

The great fear connected with the introduction of Chinese into a colony is lest the Orientals should permanently settle in large numbers, practically overrun the country, and enter into competition with the European inhabitants, whom they can in most industrial departments equal in skill and beat hollow in price. It was to prevent such competition that the Ordinance was necessary before the mining authorities were allowed to bring the Chinese labourer into the Transvaal. As the law stood a Chinaman was permitted to settle in the colony, and many had done so, as they can do in England if they choose. It was only the Chinamen's ignorance of the opening there was for them and the absence of means to carry them across the sea which prevented them coming in large numbers of their own accord. The mine owners, if they had cared to do so, could have removed the two difficulties mentioned without the Ordinance, just as easily as they have done so since that permissive and restrictive measure was adopted by the authorities.

The suggestion that Chinese coolie labour should be introduced into the Transvaal was not very kindly received, even in

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Johannesburg, at first, and this dislike to the proposal can be very well understood. One great meeting was held and passed a resolution against the idea. As often happens in other walks of life, however, it was finally decided by those most concerned (the employers, workers, and general public on the Rand) that it was better to accept that which was somewhat distasteful rather than face something which would have been far more objectionable. They had to decide between Chinese coolie labour on the one hand, or industrial stagnation, distress, and probable ruin on the other. After much discussion they decided to accept what they considered to be the lesser of the two evils. It is highly important that it should be fully realised that the demand for Asiatic unskilled labour in the mines was one made by all classes of people on the spot, who knew what they needed and understood what they were asking for.

A great petition was organised in Johannesburg in support of the Ordinance, and this was signed by over 45,000 white male adults, which represented more than 70 per cent. of the total population qualified to sign. Popular meetings were held in all the great centres along the Rand, and in other towns, at which resolutions in favour of the scheme were passed by overwhelming majorities. A mass meeting, composed of delegates from all kinds of trade, scientific, religious, and other societies, was held in Johannesburg, and memorialised Lord Milner on the subject strongly in favour of the introduction of the Chinese labourer. The organisations represented at this gathering are too numerous to give in detail here, but among them it may be mentioned were such important institutions as Chambers of Commerce, Societies of Architects, Engineers, Chemists, Chartered Accountants, and religious bodies of all denominations from the Anglican Church to the Salvation Army. These, we must admit, were all people on the spot, who knew well what the necessities were, and whose aims and desires were wholly above suspicion. When the Ordinance came to be considered and discussed in the Transvaal Legislative Chamber it was passed by a large majority, the voting being twenty-two in favour of the measure and only four against it. When the Ordinance came before the home Government it was felt that it had been so thoroughly discussed in the Transvaal and among the people most interested, and the demand for the measure was so pronounced and strong, that there was no reason to advise the King to withhold his sanction.

In considering this matter throughout it should always be kept in view that the Chinese labourer has been introduced into the Transvaal mines to supplement the Kaffir unskilled labourer, and not to compete against the white skilled artisan. A study of the Ordinance will make this perfectly clear. In the form of "Contract

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of Service" given in the document in question, and which has to be signed by both the labourer and the employer, it is definitely stated that—

Each of the labourers, so long as he remains in the Transvaal, shall be employed *only* in unskilled labour (meaning thereby such labour as is usually performed in mines in the Witwatersrand district by persons belonging to the aboriginal races or tribes of Africa south of the Equator) in the exploitation of minerals within the Witwatersrand district, and in particular he shall not be employed in any of the trades or occupations following, except for unskilled labour therein, to wit:—Amalgamator, Assayer, Banksman, Blacksmith, Boilermaker, Brass Finisher, Brass Moulder, Bricklayer, Brickmaker Overseer, Carpenter, Clerk, Coppersmith, Cyanide Shiftsman, Drill Sharpener, Driver of Air or Steam Winch, Driver of Mechanical or Electrical Machinery, Electrician, Engine Driver, Engineer, Fireman Overseer, Fitter, Ganger, Iron Moulder, Joiner, Machine Rock Driller, Machine Sawyer, Machinist, Mason, Mechanic, Miller, Millwright, Mine Carpenter, Mine Storeman, Miner Overseer, Onsetter, Overseer in any capacity other than the management and control of labourers, Painter, Pattern Maker, Pipeman, Plasterer, Platelayer, Plumber, Pumpman, Quarryman Overseer, Rigger, Sampler, Signaller, Skipman, Stonecutter, Timberman, Timekeeper, Tinsmith, Turner, Wire Splicer, and Woodworking Machinist.

On the other hand, the Ordinance lays down definitely certain conditions for the protection of the Chinese coolie. These fix the period of his service, the minimum rate of pay he is to receive, the right to work piecework, regulations for his comfortable housing and feeding, provision of medical attendance, the right to bring his wife and children to the colony, free passage from and back to China, compensation in case of injury and for next-of-kin in case of death, conveyance of his body to China should he die during his term of contract, the right to break his contract at any time and to return to China at his own expense, the observance of all Sundays and Chinese festivals and holidays, and other similar provisions.

Notwithstanding certain strong statements which have been made from time to time to the effect that the Transvaal Chinese coolies are very little better than slaves (which statements are not now so rife as they were some months back, due probably to a more intimate knowledge of the facts among the public), there is little doubt that the coolies themselves have never regarded their life on the Rand as one of slavery or serfdom. They are able to earn wages many times in excess of what they can get in China, have comfortable quarters, and a plentiful supply of food cooked according to their own national tastes; bathrooms (which it is said are well used) are provided, and many other comforts to which they are unaccustomed in their own country. One gentleman who has a wide knowledge of the Chinese coolies and of the conditions of life among the labouring population of many countries says that in his opinion "the Chinese coolies on the Rand are in clover." Sir William Preece mentions that each Chinaman's

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sleeping-place in the compounds is provided with an eider-down quilt, and numbers of other visitors, equally disinterested, have spoken in admiration of the arrangements made for the health and comfort of the Oriental labourers. Mr. Lionel Phillips in his book, "Transvaal Problems," says:—

On several occasions I went to see the coolies have their dinner. It is a most extraordinary sight. At the Glen Deep Limited, for instance, they have a dining-room capable of seating 1,500 at a time. The order and cleanliness that prevails is beyond criticism. In the adjoining kitchen huge vessels, some containing well-cooked rice and others stewed meat and vegetables, emit fumes of a most appetising description. . . . No limit is placed upon the quantity of rice or tea which the coolies require, and the rations of meat are in every way adequate. Two coolies were overheard discussing their new land, and one said, "We live like Mandarins in this country: we eat rice every day."

The Colonial Secretary, Lord Elgin, has expressed regret that the term "slavery," as applied to the Chinese coolies, should have been used. The British Government, by undertaking to pay the cost of repatriating, under certain liberal conditions, any Chinaman who wishes to return home, has removed the last excuse that can possibly be found by anyone for describing the coolies as slaves. The very small demand that has been made by the Chinese for the exercise of this special advantage is fair proof, if any were needed, that they do not, as a body, regard their condition as one of slavery.

Reports have from time to time been circulated in the newspapers to the effect that Chinese labourers on the Rand have been subjected to tortures and other barbarous treatment. Such incidents, however, appear to have been few and far between, in every case absolutely unauthorised, and due to the illegitimate action of some of their own countrymen, who, when detected, have been promptly punished and in a number of cases sent back to China. It can be safely said that nothing of the kind has ever been allowed by the responsible mining officials. A certain amount of crime has been committed by some of the coolies, but this is not altogether surprising. It is scarcely to be expected that fifty thousand men of the labouring classes from an Oriental country would be free from an admixture of a certain number of ruffians. It is doubtful if the same number of labouring men from any other country, even our own, would be freer from such evil doers.

A number of the Chinese, again, have deserted the compounds, and in some cases have committed robberies and offered personal violence to the country population with whom they have come in contact. Even in a number of these cases there is every reason to suppose that the outrages have been due to misunderstanding rather than to any deliberate intention to commit a crime. The Chinese have come from a densely-populated country, where,

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wander as they may, they never get away from villages and peopled districts. In South Africa it is different. It is an easy matter for a group of Orientals, or of any strangers, leaving a compound for a harmless walk into the country to lose themselves on the open veld. Such cases have occurred, the accidental truants wandering about for hours, and even days, in an effort to find their way home. Such men, tired, hungry, and desperate, may suddenly see an isolated farm house, and make their way towards it in the hope of obtaining food and direction. The Boer inhabitants when they see the Chinamen coming in some cases get alarmed, make up their minds that the strangers are bent on robbery or murder, or both, shut their doors against them, and even threaten them with rifles. A desperate struggle in such case may ensue and blood be unfortunately shed on both sides, which might be avoided were the Boers able to understand the Chinamen's distress and to supply them with a feed of rice, instead of offering them harsh treatment.

In any case, whether the crimes committed arise under such circumstances as those just described or are due to intentional wrong doing, they are not sufficiently numerous to warrant the wholesale condemnation of the whole of the Chinese labourers. It is a question of providing adequate police arrangements for the protection of the law-abiding people, just as it is in an old and highly-developed country like England. Even here we find it necessary to spend large sums of money to support a police force, not because the people as a whole are vicious, but because it is necessary that the mass should be protected from the few who are.

In the preceding paragraphs the writer has tried to show that the Chinese coolies have been introduced into the Transvaal mining districts to supplement the Kaffirs, and not to supplant them. Kaffirs cost less to feed and house than do the Chinese, and their employment does not entail the cost (about £17. 10s. per head) of their passage from and back to China, as is the case with the coolies. This in itself is sufficient to show that the mining authorities prefer natives when they can get them. The fact, too, that the number of Kaffirs employed has been steadily on the increase for some time back points to the same conclusion.

If the Chinese have not been intended to supplant the Kaffirs still less have they been intended to take the place of the whites employed. On the contrary, the employment of Chinese in unskilled work has opened the way for a very substantial increase in the number of highly-paid whites who are required. This will be clearly illustrated by the following figures. In May, 1904, there were 13,127 white men employed in the mines. This was before the arrival of the first batch of the Chinese. Eighteen months later,

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when some 45,000 Chinese were engaged, the numbers of the whites had increased to 18,359, which it will be seen gives a net increase of the highly-paid skilled white workers of 5,232. This, from the point of view of the public of Johannesburg and the Transvaal generally, must be looked upon as highly satisfactory, as it increases the total wages paid to the white workers by about a million sterling per year, and in the same measure increases their power to spend, and, therefore, benefits the shopkeepers and commercial classes. That which directly increases the wealth and commercial progress of the Transvaal must indirectly benefit all the colonies of South Africa, and, indeed, the whole of the British Empire. If the Chinese labourers were to disappear altogether from South Africa stagnation in the gold industry and distress among the white workers and general commercial depression would immediately ensue, unless their places could be filled up by Kaffirs, who cannot at present be obtained in sufficient numbers. Even though such might be the result it would not be right to retain the Chinese coolies if the conditions under which they work were such as could in any way be honestly described as slavery.

As this is written it is still an open question whether the system of coolie labour is to be continued in the Transvaal gold fields. The Colonial Office has taken steps to suspend the work of recruiting further labourers in China, but meanwhile those who had some months back contracted for service are being allowed to find their way to the mines, so that the number in the Transvaal is still on the increase. What the future arrangements are to be, however, is still an unknown quantity, but there is little doubt as to what the feeling in the Transvaal is with regard to the matter. The colony is shortly to receive responsible Government, and the coolie question will, in all probability, be handed over to the new authority for settlement in accordance with local needs and local demands. Whatever happens, it can only be the wish of all loyal Britons that the decision may be one which will make for the prosperity and happiness of all the residents in the Transvaal, whether they be Britons, Boers, Kaffirs, or Chinese. The best interests of the Transvaal, and of South Africa, should be the guiding principle which should actuate those who have the settlement of the matter to deal with; and it is inconceivable that such can be in any degree antagonistic to the ordinary dictates of humanity and justice.

In dealing with the gold fields of the Transvaal it should not be overlooked that there are other interests in the country besides those of gold mining. Gold will not prove the permanent wealth of the country, but can only be looked upon as of temporary value. Notwithstanding this statement, however, it should be remembered

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that all other industrial and commercial developments must be almost entirely dependent upon the gold industry for some considerable time to come. The output of the mines provides the capital which is all important if the necessities of the land are to be overtaken. The building of railways, the cutting of roads, the construction of bridges, and the establishment of irrigation works are all highly necessary if British South Africa is to develop on lines similar to those followed by the older British colonial territories. None of these great and all-important works can be undertaken unless the capital is first produced by the Transvaal gold fields. The attraction of a large British-speaking population, which will pave the way for the other developments referred to, can only, in the first place, be accomplished by the continued and successful working of the mines. The Rand, if properly worked, will, indeed, produce the population, and, in so doing, also provide the capital necessary to develop the Transvaal and the sister colonies by which it is surrounded.

The permanent wealth of any country, it need hardly be said, consists in its agricultural possibilities. The gold fields may attract a vigorous and virile population, but the people will disappear when the precious metal is exhausted unless the country in the meanwhile has developed its agricultural potentialities. It is well known that South Africa can, if properly dealt with, produce vast stores of agricultural wealth; but much capital must first be sunk. This capital, as has been said before, can be produced by the gold fields, so that it is highly important in the general interest of the whole group of colonies that nothing should be allowed to interfere with their legitimate progress. There is, doubtless, a great and important future before the South African colonies and the virile peoples who inhabit them. As the great Dominion of Canada and the recently-formed Commonwealth of Australia have grown from small beginnings into their present importance, so will the South African colonies—if they are justly dealt with—grow and develop until they in their turn will federate, and as the United States of South Africa take their place in the world-wide group of British colonial nations. When this time arrives it will be acknowledged that no circumstance had a greater influence in the development than the existence of the gold fields of South Africa.

Democracy and Foreign Policy.

BY J. RAMSAY MACDONALD, M.P.

THE foreign policy of Democracy has rarely varied. There have been times when Democracy was not organised or when it was taken off its guard, and then it danced while the cymbals of war made music; but whenever Democracy, in moments of calm or at times when it was conscious of its own political nature, has been asked to lay down a foreign policy it has always repeated two chief principles. In the first place it has declared for peace; in the second it has declared for the emancipation of oppressed peoples. Non-interference has never been a cardinal part of the Democratic platform. Lord Milner and all the persons and newspapers interested in reconciling the people of Great Britain to an attack upon the Boer States knew the game only too well when they began their campaign by telling us that the strangers in the Transvaal were helots, and that they prayed for our swords and Maxim guns in order to gain freedom. To that appeal the British Democracy has never been deaf. It listened to Garibaldi, it listened to Kossuth, it listened to the mining magnates, and its ear is as open to the same cry as ever. If, for instance, the press to-day would lead an attack upon the Russian bureaucracy, the British people would be ready to respond and would be prepared to follow a lead that went almost to any lengths.

I.

The reason is not difficult to understand. The spirit of Democracy is international, but its love is for people, not for Governments, and it discriminates between the two. It declines to take nations as it finds them. Liberty is the very breath of its life, and where there is no liberty the spirit of Democracy finds no resting place.

In this sense, Democracy is like Christianity. It is a faith which desires to subdue the whole world to itself. It cannot remain a passive spectator of conditions foreign to its own spirit. It belongs to the absolute; it can accept no compromises with anything not itself. It would rather see a people struggling through a chaotic freedom to a law and an order of their own than see them

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subdued by a superior race and taught the peace which to them is a loss of initiative and liberty. To it, the one is life with its blunders, the other is death with its passivity. Hence it is that the Democracy never can appreciate the argument of the defenders of our rule in India and Egypt. With triumphant emphasis we are told how these people were preyed upon by the authorities, were slain in many battles and robbed by unjust stewards, and how they now live and multiply under the peace and the law of Britain. Live and multiply, we feel, getting their day's wages with the regularity of a dock labourer of Poplar or an agricultural worker of Wiltshire—and the price they have to pay is the surrender of their national life and an abandonment of their racial development. The price is too heavy. The stream of their corporate existence has run into a desert of sand. The individual is saved, but is cut away from the national roots which gave him his true life. Oh, happy man! Oh, unhappy men! Liberty and Democracy cannot be cut apart. They are soul and body. Hence, no government is final unless it is self-government, and all people who are governed and cannot govern themselves are to be pitied and their revolts supported.

This is, perhaps, not quite so clear as it was in the days of 1848, or when Garibaldi came to London, or when the then Prince of Wales went to St. Paul's to return thanks for his safe recovery from fever. For this there are three main reasons.

In the first place, our people themselves have now enjoyed the privilege of self-government for a generation. It is no longer a new and a precious plaything. The gilt has worn somewhat off it. The enthusiasm for politics has calmed down, and the machine has settled into smooth working order. After all, the man with the vote has to struggle for bare existence, has to suffer that defeat of hope which makes the heart sick, has to admit that reform is long and life is short, and that the pilgrim of progress is on a wearisome wilderness journey when it is impossible not to blaspheme sometimes against the Lord.

In the second place, the help so generously given by past generations to struggling peoples appears to have borne but a scanty harvest of blessing. Italy has not been a success altogether. The Balkan States are poor affairs. Greece is a disappointment. The Transvaal helot was a fraud, and imposed upon our good nature. The divine flame lighting up the eye of Liberty somehow or other has been dimmed. Moreover, if we have been disappointed as spectators of European politics, we have been annoyed by some of the results upon ourselves of our policies conceived in the spirit of freedom. The stream of alien immigrants has become a kind of nightmare invasion, bearing with it disease, poverty, sweating, overcrowding, and much suchlike abomination; whilst the foreigner

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who lands his goods free upon our quays, and sells them in our shops without let or hindrance, imposes all manner of restrictions upon us. It is true that when we douch ourselves in cold figures the nightmare of both immigration and foreign trade vanishes, but to the minds of many men it appears as though the nightmare somehow or other ought to be true, and, whilst they will consent to close their ports neither against people nor against manufactured articles, they allow a resting-place in their hearts to a lurking feeling of resentment against the foreigner, and this tends to dim the enthusiasm of Democracy and make it careless of the fate of foreign peoples.

But greatest of all the forces which have crushed out the enthusiasm of Democracy which blazed up at the time of 1848 and gave rise to International Working-class Associations has been the task which we have imposed upon our people as the responsible custodians of an Empire part of which is governed by the citizens themselves, like Canada; part of which is ruled by irresponsible officials, like India; part of which is controlled by a minority of the white predominant race, like Natal. Under such circumstances our people cannot hide from themselves the fact that their own Empire is far from being a Democratic State, and events are constantly arising which retard the carrying out of intentions to make it a Democratic State. We are told that self-government is impracticable for India so long as there are different races, castes, and religions in the country. We are assured that the methods of civilisation have no effect upon the mind of the savage, and that unless the Englishman abroad does what he dispossessed the ancient chiefs for doing the undiscerning native will assume that the white man can be played with. Savages must be met with savagery. They do not understand British justice. Our brothers, our sons, our daughters "on the spot" tell us so, and it is an insult to our family institutions to doubt their word. So we make up our minds to justify whatever is done, however much it may violate our own sense of justice and humanism. We feel like doomed men who cannot do what we would and who accept the inevitable evil.

But a virile nation like ours cannot hang its head. It is bound to make a virtue of its necessities. We quickly pass from the stage of regret to that of approval. We become what is called an "imperially-minded" people, and by this is meant a people which believes that it can rule other peoples, that it can transplant its civilisation so that the child of the Nile Valley or of the Congo can grow up as though he had been cradled in the Isle of Dogs and came from a long Cockney ancestry. From the point of view of scientific sociology, nothing is more preposterous than this notion that civilisation can be transplanted or taught by political methods; from the point of view of political Democracy nothing is more

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fatal. The people who attempt to govern upon one set of principles at home and upon another set of principles abroad are doomed to futility. We cannot be despots—even benevolent despots—over black men and be vigilantly Democratic in our own affairs. And so Jubilee processions and wars with the less civilised peoples of the world have dimmed our Democratic ardour; they have made us peevish in our determination to claim that almost any means justifies our end—farm burning, concentration camps, courts martial in Natal—and this cry marks a further downward step from the rigidly just state of mind which has characterised our Democratic movements. The Democracy must be able honestly to criticise itself, to impose moral restraints upon itself, to act under rules and to forego advantages rather than break those rules, but that is just the state of mind which an imperialistic people can never enjoy.

So, undoubtedly, we have drifted far from the days of 1848. But the tide has turned for some time now, and I believe that, with troubled consciences and with blushes on our faces, we are seeking again the old principles which we were abandoning. Our Democracy is once more to become international in its frame of mind. In other words, it is to help to free the oppressed races and is to stand for peace.

II.

When the politics of our people were drifting into most dangerous places international organisation was being pushed ahead by a few faithful men and societies.

We had a group of Peace and Arbitration Societies, and though the influence of the Peace Society was properly shattered owing to the part which some of its officials played during the South African War, the others carried on their good work. At their head Mr. Cremer, M.P., stands, no man in his generation having done more to keep pure the international spirit. He had sent his deputations to the European capitals long before tourist agencies discovered that peace propaganda was a paying game. Over and over again have I discovered that when no English Labour leader's name was known in some foreign company in which I have chanced to find myself, the mention of the Member for Haggerston has brought a gleam of understanding into the faces of my companions. But at best *ad hoc* Peace Societies only appeal to a limited section of people in any country, and their propaganda tends to become vague and their professed adherents break down in the stressful time of war. That is one of the reasons why the working-class and Socialist parties of Europe decline as a rule to attend the Inter-Parliamentary Peace Conferences.

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But now in every European State the Peace Party proper is supported by an international movement founded upon an economic basis. The working-class parties of Europe are internationalist. The International Congresses at Zurich, London, Paris, Amsterdam, have brought into personal contact the leaders of the various Socialist and Trade Union organisations of the world, not of Europe only, and there is now a permanent Bureau at Brussels acting between these triennial Congresses and keeping the various nationalities in touch with each other. Each nationality has a Committee of its own, and to those Committees are sent all communications which the Bureau issues. Thus, when the Moroccan crisis threatened to plunge France and Germany into war, the International Bureau was prepared to take steps to move the Parliaments of Europe to bring pressure to bear upon both parties to submit their cases to arbitration. When it is remembered that now in every Parliament in Europe there is a group of men, varying in number from two or three to forty or fifty, ready to act on the advice of this Bureau, one can have some idea of its influence in international politics. Moreover, in the case of the Russian revolution, this Bureau has issued appeals for funds, and it is in direct communication with the leaders of the movement. But perhaps the most promising of all the activities of this Bureau is the annual gathering of Socialist and Labour members of Parliament, which met in London for the first time this year. Next year it is to meet at Stuttgart. The intention of this annual Conference is to carry the policy of internationalism far beyond the limits of peace. Of course, one of its main objects at first will be to throw its weight into the movement for the reduction of armaments, and it will try and secure that in each of the Parliaments each year a resolution will be discussed favouring the reference of disputes to the Hague Court and the reduction of armaments. But, over and above that, this Conference proposes to create a European standard of Labour legislation, so that the best that any one country has done as regards shortening the hours of labour, giving Old Age Pensions, establishing Compensation Funds for injured workmen, imposing educational standards for children before they can enter factories or workshops, and so on, may become the goal of all other nations.

Another set of international gatherings is yielding a rich harvest of goodwill. I refer to the Trade Union meetings. Perhaps the least effective act of international Trade Union courtesy, the American delegation from our Trade Union Congress to the American Federation of Labour, has not been altogether without value, but who can tell how much we owe to the International Textile, Metallurgist, Transport, Mining, and similar Conferences. At first they only showed international differences, and, perhaps, if

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the truth must be told, John Bull did not come very well out of them. But as the years went on John Bull educated and was educated, and to-day the memories that many leaders of Continental workmen have of those Conferences and the men they have met at them form a part of the most substantial guarantee we have that it would be difficult to send us to war with Germany or France. Unfortunately, the blessings of these Conferences have been confined to a comparative handful of men in all countries, and the rank and file have not experienced them. But, at any rate, the leaders of our Trade Unions can all be relied upon to assist in the pursuit of any policy calculated to broaden and make permanent fraternal relations between the States of Europe.

Nor would any summary, however cursory, of the forces keeping Democracy true to itself in its foreign policy be adequate without mention of the great part played by the Co-operative movement. The Co-operative movement, like Democracy itself, knows no national barrier. One goes into a Co-operative Store in France or Italy, utters the magic word "Co-operator," and the freemasonry of the movement immediately comes into play, and one is at once taken to the heart of the stranger. Only those who have travelled abroad and who have put themselves in the way of meeting this powerful aid to the international spirit, as I have done, can appreciate its great value. And perhaps the British can appreciate it most of all. For is it not the name of Robert Owen, spoken in all kinds of strange accents, which is the bond of the Co-operative freemasonry, and, in consequence, is not the English Co-operator to the foreigner like the Mohammedan who has been born in Mecca or the Pilgrim who has been to the Holy Sepulchre? There is, of course, the definite international organisation of the Co-operative movement with its officers and Conferences, but I care more for the spirit than for the organisation, and every time I meet a Co-operator in a foreign country I am reminded afresh of the great work our movement is doing of an international character, and the solid foundations it is laying for the building up of a Democratic foreign policy by the hands of the politicians.

Considering the great power which the Co-operative movement holds in this respect, I sometimes doubt if it makes as good use of its opportunities as it might. A Co-operative holiday can be spent as enjoyably and as cheaply in the Black Forest as at Blackpool, and its value as a holiday is very much greater. There are scores of places on the Continent that would delight to do honour to Co-operative guests. But it is in connection with the summer schools at Universities that the best international work could be done. The German or French University is much more Democratic than either Oxford or Cambridge, and the typical French or German

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Professor is far simpler in his habits and more Democratic in his spirit than his English brother. Nothing would delight him more than to deliver to a company of English working men a series of lectures on European literature, or politics, or ethics, or religion, and the benefits of such a course delivered by such a man would be very much greater both from the educational and the civic point of view than could be derived from such a course delivered in a lecture hall at Oxford or Cambridge. I mention these things because the foreign policy of the Democracy is not devised by politicians alone; it grows from the intercourse which the Democracy has with peoples other than itself, and from the spirit of the great movements in which the Democracy is engaged.

III.

In the task which is now imposed upon the Labour Party to formulate a foreign policy in accordance with its Democratic sentiments several major obstacles have to be overcome. There is, first, the obstacle of militarism. We are told that the only way to preserve peace is to be prepared for war. This is as superficial and erroneous as most of these summary and picturesque sayings are. Being prepared for war, and consequently always thinking of war, is in reality to live in a constant state of incipient war. The soldier tends to become greater than the citizen. The army must have special privileges. The man who has just left the colours must have a preference shown to him in employment. The first claims on the national purse are the claims of the fighting forces. A never-ending policy of beggar-my-neighbour is inaugurated, and every nation makes every other nation's warlike preparations a justification why it should spend an ever-increasing annual sum on fleets and armies. The best way to secure peace is to adopt a peace policy, to show by our conduct that we do not propose to fly at the throats or pilfer the possessions of any of our neighbours; and the first step to that policy is an agreement to stop the increase of armaments, and the second is to begin a reduction of the armaments that now exist. At the present moment, unfortunately, Germany blocks the way, and it is just in Germany where the Socialist movement is least able to make its influence felt on the Government. It has 3,000,000 electors behind it, but it has no real Parliament, and until Germany moves, Europe must be held back.

But on the general question our Labour Party must be perfectly clear. It stands for disarmament as an essential condition of peace. And disarmament means a great deal more than reduction in army and navy. It means a national policy for peace which is to be pursued from the Elementary School up to the Cabinet. We must, therefore, discountenance those wicked proposals made by

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Lord Meath and others for the military training of school children, and our members on local education authorities should strenuously oppose such training. Nor can we do anything but regret the spread of boys' brigades, where toy guns and mimic manoeuvres are the chief attractions for the youths, and where the military colour is given to life. Both these movements, from a moral as well as from an educational point of view, are to be condemned. Perhaps every man ought to be able to defend his own hearth from invasion, but preparation for that can best be made when a man has reached adult years, and when his mind is less enamoured by the blazing colours of military glory.

Nor can we shut our eyes to the damaging effects of the fiscal policy which is most common in Europe to-day. Commercial nationalism breeds the narrowest minded form of political nationalism. Tariff walls irritate the foreigner without benefitting the home trade, and there can be no doubt about it that in recent years, when our country had to go through troubled times in European politics, the fact that its ports were open to all nations tempered the storms, and made the tasks of her ambassadors easier. The fact that foreign nations have been building up tariff walls against us has sorely tried our tempers, and the various tariff wars that have been waged between France and Italy, France and Switzerland, Germany and Russia, have increased the fevers of Europe. The soldier with fixed bayonet has a knack of popping up on the top of the tariff wall to scare off the successful thieves and robbers who come in the guise of foreign traders.

Certain it is, at any rate, that the various movements I have noticed as contributing to the building up of a foreign policy for the Democracy are agreed in standing for Free Trade. The German Socialists' final manifesto, published on the eve of the last General Election, declared emphatically against Protection; the French Socialists are Free Traders; our own Labour Party is Free Trade; the Co-operative Congress has declared decisively against any change in our fiscal system. The only exceptions seem to be our Colonies and the United States, where the Labour and Democratic parties are either divided or have made no very clear pronouncement. In Australia the Labour Party is split upon the fiscal question, and so far as the Labour organisations of America have thought out the subject, and have made decisive pronouncement upon it, they are now ranging themselves alongside the Labour and Democratic parties of Europe. But in these cases circumstances are special. Common sense seems to favour Protection in new countries, and even John Stuart Mill succumbed to the superficial case which common sense presented. Moreover, these lands are isolated, and they have a range of climate and a variety of soil and

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mineral wealth which may well induce them to dream of economic independence from the rest of the world. They are to be their own factories and their own markets; they are to keep up conditions of labour within their borders at a higher level than obtains outside, and to them, therefore, imports are like a disease. Every manufactured thing that reaches their ports is to be suspected as though it were the smallpox. Further, they have not yet launched out into the world. They have hedged themselves behind Monroe doctrines; they believe that the ancient outside laughs at them and does not accept them at their own valuation; their words may be big, but their minds are parochial and they isolate themselves. Time alone can cure these errors.

Whilst the Governments of the world may be as little inclined as ever to abandon their mistaken policies of Protection, there can be no doubt about it but that the Democracies so far as they are organised and speak as conscious political factors are adopting Free Trade as an international policy.

A policy of non-provocative diplomacy supplemented by an industrial one of free exchange between nations is what the Democracy has to develop.

IV.

A Democratic foreign policy depends upon a Democratic organisation. It is not enough to say that the people are there, that the people are in a majority, and that, therefore, every Government must obey the will of the people or it could not exist. Things do not work out that way. Only when the Democracy is keenly alive, is thinking for itself, is trusting in itself, or, in other words, is self-conscious, is the nature of Democracy having free play and a chance of expressing itself. When the Democracy is not organised it is easily misled. It forgets itself. The Government for the time being can get its clamours and its support. It is like the man who led a riot against the *South African News* one year because it was rational and opposed the war with the Transvaal, and in a few months later led a riot of the unemployed because he had in the interval been persuaded that the war was a fraud. The unorganised Democracy gets out of touch with itself and demonstrates at the bidding of its enemies against its friends, and then, in a fit of remorse, proceeds to visit upon these enemies one of the most condign punishments which it has ever inflicted upon any party since it came into political existence. The enfranchisement of the Democracy does not, therefore, mean a Democratic Government. That can only come when the enfranchised people become conscious of their natural political destinies, of the plan of their political evolution, and organise themselves so as to fulfil their possibilities.

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An important consequence follows. The foreign policy of the Democracy must be conducted through foreign Democratic parties, and little regard will probably be paid to Governments. The full force of Democratic diplomacy will be spent to create combinations with parties similar to the great international combination of Socialists to which I have already referred. This has a direct bearing upon a Democratic peace policy. We are often taunted with preaching peace whilst we counsel war, for it is easy to detect that the Democratic foreign policy is not always one of peace at any price. Our alliance is not with Governments but with Democratic parties. A case in point arose when it was proposed to send the British fleet to Russian waters. The intention on the part of the Government was the most excellent one of showing good feeling to Russia. But the Labour Party immediately opposed the visit and put provocative questions to Sir Edward Grey, which, no doubt, embarrassed him in his relations with the Russian Ambassador and gave offence to the Russian Government. We did not care. The Russian Government was not the Russian people, and it was necessary for us to show them that that was our view. The Duma—more particularly the progressive sections in the Duma—represented the Russian people so far as we were concerned, and whilst we were demonstrating against their Government we were sending messages of fraternal hope and sympathy to them. At no time was there any risk of war. But if the Russian bureaucracy had been in a better position to retaliate we should not have adopted a different course. The foreign policy of the Democracy concerns itself with Democracies, not with Governments.

The distinction is not academic, it is real. It will be more clearly indicated if the revolution in Russia goes on, and it may at no distant time affect our relations with Germany. No one knows how long the Kaiser is to continue to enjoy his position as an unlimited ruler. Sooner or later the German Socialists will have to challenge him. The millions of German electors who vote against his policy cannot allow him to defy their verdict for ever. The day is sure to come when he will be beset by a determined opposition. When that day comes we shall try and throw the weight of England against him. Our German policy will be directed so as to assist his people and not himself, just as it was directed against the Czar and in favour of his revolted subjects. Peace must always appear to us subordinate to Liberty.

Another important consequence follows from this. It determines the countries with which we desire to be most friendly. France, for instance, is not only our nearest neighbour. She is a Republic; she shares with ourselves the honour of being the pioneer of political enlightenment in Europe. When she threw herself into

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the arms of Russia we mourned, for the friendship was unnatural. It was a prostitution. It twisted and warped the nature of France, and we longed for the disruption for the sake of Democracy as well as for that of France. The *entente cordiale* is not an understanding between Governments; it is an alliance between two peoples. By neither of them, therefore, is it regarded as an alliance to menace other nations. Democratic alliances are not of that character. It is but the beginning of other alliances—with Germany, for instance, which is only retarded because its Government is not Democratic, because its Executive Council is independent of the people's will. It is quite true that there is much in the histories of France and England of the last century, right up to the Fashoda incident, to keep the two countries apart. But these things do not count when Democracies move together. So as regards Germany. It is not our trade rivalry that maintains a coldness between us, nor is it the Kaiser's policy to build a fleet to blow us out of the North Sea that keeps us apart. It is that the German Government is foreign to the heart of the English people, and consequently any alliance we could make with Germany would be a formal bargaining thing like the Triple Alliance. So soon as liberty is infused into German political institutions an alliance between Germany and ourselves will be inevitable. But then it will be a union of which the *entente cordiale* is the forerunner, not prompted by considerations of which military advantage is the chief, but by a spontaneous movement of two peoples—kindred in aspiration, engaged in the same political pilgrimage—to come together and greet each other as friends. In the main this has been the nature of our friendship with Italy and with Greece, and a friendship of a similar kind will spring up at once between us and Russia as soon as the bureaucracy is overthrown.

V.

There are still some people left who tell us that the industrial Democracy when organised politically should have no foreign politics and policy, because such things are too high for it to understand and lie outside its sphere. But an industrial Democracy without a foreign policy is like a man without a mind. Man will not be confined to a parish or a country. He must find some way of identifying himself with the whole human race, and if he does not find a good way he will find a bad way. He will subscribe to Christian Missions or vote for Imperialist candidates; he will annex territory or make alliances, but he will never say as a sceptic, "Am I the keeper of my brother outside my national bounds?" Democratic movements in politics must be as wide, their horizons must be as remote, as the scope of the mind of the electors. A party that confines its attention to domestic affairs

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is no party, because its interests are not national in their breadth. It cannot last; it is at best a reaction or a temporary makeshift. A policy defining the relations of the party to the world is as essential to a party's existence as one defining its relations to the nation to which it belongs. This is particularly true of Great Britain. Her commerce is a world commerce, her authority is acknowledged in regions scattered from the rising to the setting sun, and from the North to the South Pole. Her interests are bound up in the least disturbance of political power in any of the continents. We can no more neglect foreign politics than we can neglect foreign trade. They are part of our inheritance; if we eschew them they pursue us, for our negligence would not bring us peace but trouble. We must have our foreign policy as a Democratic party, therefore, and I think it must be guided by these principles: An alliance with peoples, but not necessarily with Governments; a support of the principle of nationality and of national freedom; a sleepless opposition to militarism and imperialism (as the word is now used); free trade; peace. "Old principles!" it may be remarked. That may be so, but who will say but that in the light of recent events they require to be reiterated to-day with as much energy as they ever commanded. And, besides, in some departments of life, progress is not marked by the discovery of new and unfamiliar principles, but by the constant application of old ones by fresh minds to new conditions.



The Press and Its Message.

BY H. W. MASSINGHAM.

EVERY observer of the ways of Fleet Street is aware of the remarkable development that has come over the world of newspapers during the last twenty years. Within that period a new press has been born, and it may almost be said that an old one has died. The changes have been manifold. The earlier tendency in newspapers was to maintain them as a kind of family proprietary. The *Times* was in the hands of the Walter family. The *Chronicle* belonged to the Lloyds, and the *Telegraph* to the Lawsons. The *Daily News* was the property of a triumvirate of rich Liberals. The *Standard* was owned by the Johnstones and controlled by Mr. Mudford, and the *Echo* was the property of Mr. Passmore Edwards. The family tradition persists, but many inroads have been made into it. We are coming, too, to the reign of companies and syndicates, of grouped newspapers, directed from a common centre, and thereby achieving large economies in production and in distribution.

The second great change is the advent of the halfpenny press, with its accompaniment, American journalism adapted to English tastes. Twenty years ago there was only one halfpenny newspaper in London, the *Echo*. It has disappeared, but eight new comers* have taken its place, which between them must absorb at least seven-eighths of the newspaper buyers in the metropolis. The *Daily News*, the *Chronicle*, and in the provinces the *Leeds Mercury*, all representative organs, have ceased to appear as penny papers, and have attained a circulation undreamt of in the most prosperous period of their past.

Both distributors and advertisers have surrendered to this new Gothic invasion with hardly a murmur. Advertisers do not shrink from the halfpenny paper, even those who cater for the richer classes. The old rule that advertisements follow circulation has been boldly applied to the new development, and has been found to be a safe guide, while improvements in the rotary press have practically abolished a limit to production. The streets are deluged with newspapers thrown off with inconceivable rapidity from the cylinders of Hoe or Annand machines. The evening journals are

*The eight halfpenny newspapers in London are the *Daily News*, the *Daily Chronicle*, the *Daily Mail*, the *Daily Express*, the *Morning Leader*, the *Star*, the *Evening News*, the *Sun*. The *Echo* and the short-lived *Morning* are dead.

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rushed by carts and bicycle riders to the distributing shops and open-air centres. Every one seems to have become a reader either of newspapers or of the innumerable prints, made up of jest, gossip, sensational or sentimental fiction, tit-bits of unconnected "information," which represent the bye-products of some of the great newspaper houses, or have been the foundations of their fortunes. Rich and poor, young and old, devour the cheap prints, and for hundreds of thousands of people they must be their only literary food, their one way into the world of thought and imagination.

This new model in journalism has a dual origin. In part it springs from popular education. The whole nation can now read; this mighty source of distraction, amusement, and illumination is open to all. But it has no time for consecutive study, for ideas that are not simple and stimulating, concerned with the romance or the common joys, errors, and sufferings of mankind. The mass cannot stay to think and interpret; they are like thirsty travellers who drink at a roadside fountain and then hurry on. A portion of the middle classes—the leaders of labour movements, or men keenly interested in them—stand for a more searching literary taste, and a wider and healthier interest. But the majority still regard newspapers—as they regard theatres and music-halls—as a means of amusement.

This was the fact grasped by the pioneers of the new journalism. It was a truth, and whether it were wisely applied depended partly on the people, and partly on the men who set themselves to cater for them. The old daily newspapers and most of the weeklies had their defects. They were not all very real; their style was formal, and the choice of subjects limited. As a rule they represented a distinct political view, and to this the general conduct of the paper was strictly subordinated. They were mostly written for the middle and well-to-do classes, and did not take much account of workmen's movements. Thus the *Daily News* was Liberal and anti-Socialist so far as it took any account of working-class politics. The *Standard* represented old-fashioned Toryism, to which reform was repugnant. The *Morning Post* was aristocratic; the *Daily Telegraph* looked to the man in the street; the *Times* to the ruling classes; and the *Scotsman* and the *Manchester Examiner* to middle-class Liberalism. Their leading articles were consistent with the scheme of the paper and the opinions of the proprietor and the readers, but they were written in rather a conventional manner. They were careful of their news; their reports were long and exact, and furnished by shorthand writers of great aptitude. They laid themselves out for brilliant feats in the description of war and great pageants. The line of English special correspondents of

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the older school, which includes such names as those of Russell, Oliphant, Forbes, MacGahan, and Williams, is long and honourable.

It is clear from this sketch that the older journal had a mixed purpose. It was commercial, but it aimed at attracting readers of fixed political and even religious opinions. Furthermore, it was not, as a rule, organised on the strictest lines of "business." Its intellectual writers were largely fixtures, attached to the paper by habit, and enjoying long periods of notice. Changes on the literary staff of a leading newspaper were not very frequent; a writer of any note or capacity regarded himself as a permanent element in the life of his journal. Mr. Andrew Lang was part of the *Daily News*, Mr. Sala of the *Telegraph*, and the *Pall Mall Gazette* was Mr. Morley or Mr. Stead. In the pushing world of trade the newspaper stood out as a mixed product of the commercial instinct and of attachment to public principles. The older school of editors did not hesitate to run counter to the material interests of the paper. I remember Sir John Robinson telling me that advocacy of the cause of the North in the American Civil War brought the circulation of the *Daily News* down to 6,000 a day, and that he and the editor (Mr. Walker) saw ruin visibly confronting them. The wave of Liberalism in the middle of the last century depressed the whole Conservative press; that of Imperialism under Beaconsfield and Chamberlain lowered the fortunes of the Liberal papers.

The popularisation of the press has not destroyed this tradition of fixity in opinion. Halfpenny papers like the *Daily News* or the *Morning Leader* (there are many other examples) still represent a definite attitude to public questions; you can pretty well judge what they will say and how they will say it. But this is not the "note" of the modern popular press. Their notion is rather to follow opinion—opinion in the mass—than to guide it. "Shout with the crowd," was the advice tendered to Mr. Pickwick on a famous occasion. "But suppose there are two crowds?" asked the inquiring traveller. "Then shout with the loudest," was the reply. Newspapers worked on such principles necessarily surrender intellectual or moral influence in return for popularity with the mass of people who have no consistent interest in speculative subjects, and take their views from their neighbours. The politics of such journals resembles the gossip in a barber's shop; it is a trifle disconnected. This tendency is enhanced by the increasing power of the manager's side in the modern newspaper. Views which might lead to a decreasing circulation or a declining revenue from advertisements are discountenanced. It is difficult, for example, to see how the modern cheap press, whose aim is purely commercial, could set itself against a popular war, and in its early stages a war is nearly always popular.

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This surrender of influence is further assisted by the way in which the non-political interests of the newspaper have been developed. Cobden said that the stamp duty made the daily press the "instrument and servant" of the oligarchy.

But the halfpenny paper caters for everybody, and it is, generally speaking, the "instrument and servant" of the man in the street. It aims especially at amusing its *clientèle*. It amuses women with its fashion page, the great betting crowd with its powerful organisation of the gambling interest, the snobs with its gossip about dresses and Drawing Rooms and "leaders" of society. I well remember Cardinal Manning warning me solemnly against this development of the merely gossipy side of journalism when I saw less harm in it than I see now. It is, I suppose, inevitable, but it is in gross excess.

The enormous development of amusements is, indeed, a sign of the times. Theatres and music-halls have sprung up like mushrooms during the last generation. They represent a great commercial interest, and their prosperity is closely bound up with the newspapers, which have become the social exchange of modern life, called in at many stages of the day's pleasure and business. Their advertisements are eagerly sought, though it is doubtful whether they do not cost more than they are worth. In return for them the newspaper lays open its columns to the record of the inner life of the stage and the men and women who occupy it. Nothing is sacred to the modern reporter, from an actress's dressing-room to an "actor-manager's" butler. Photography, which is now, by a series of remarkable inventions, adapted in large measure to the uses of the daily newspaper produced on the great cylinder machines, aids the public's insatiable curiosity about its entertainers. The artist is lost in the beauty, whose adorers are the shopboys of a metropolis, and whose photos circulate not by the dozen, but by the million. As with the theatres, so with the still greater world of sport. When I was a boy the only famous cricketer whose face I had ever seen photographed was that of "W. G." Now every youngster can pick out the chief professional or amateur cricketers and footballers at a County or Association game by the familiarity with which his favourite paper (all schoolboys read newspapers nowadays) has endowed these much-admired beings. I doubt whether the same boy could name a dozen statesmen of distinction, or has heard of Lord Kelvin, George Meredith, or Thomas Hardy.

Therefore, the popular newspaper, relieved of all taxes on its issue or on the materials which it uses, circulating by the million, and coming as the natural and inevitable result of national education, has not realised the hopes of the reformers who sixty years ago

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fought for the abolition of the stamp and paper duties. Their efforts made the penny newspaper of the old type. It lived, did its work, and is now declining. Its successor has, as I shall try to show, some good points, but it has generated, or developed, an evil more serious than all the faults I have enumerated. This is its organisation of betting and sport. The latter has its good side, for it has been associated with the movement for physical culture, in itself made possible by the diminution of the hours of daily labour. But it is absurdly overdone, and is too much linked with the pleasure of looking on at games, and regarding the famous players much as the Romans of the Western Empire regarded the gladiators. Our newspapers supply the place of the statues, inscriptions, and honours with which Imperial Roman Society, never sated with amusement, rewarded the men who made life tolerable to them. They get up testimonials and gifts, incite to the making of "records," cover the successful man with flattery, and forget him the moment he ceases to be proficient.

The space devoted to sport in the modern newspaper is almost inconceivable when we remember the very perfunctory treatment accorded it in its predecessors a generation or so ago. The "sporting page," under special superintendence, is part of the regular organisation of the cheap daily newspaper. It often contains two or three separate criticisms of the same event. Professionals themselves write or are helped to write for it descriptions of the games in which they are actually engaged. Cricket matches are arranged through its columns. On Saturday a purely "sporting" edition is issued, ringing endless changes on the chorus of laudation of the great professional and amateur players, describing their appearance, style, private history, and freely supplying puns, jokes, anagrams, puzzles, and even poetry on the same sacred theme. Interest in this—as, indeed, in more than one feature—of the newspaper is stimulated by prizes to readers, some honestly offered and putting some premium on cleverness and on rhyming skill, others presenting merely the attractions of a senseless form of gambling.

Far graver are the direct stimulation and organisation of betting. I don't take an extreme view of this pleasure. In one form or another it will probably last as long as man himself. If rich or idle people like to dissipate their money in this way, they must do it. Speculative finance and trading are also gambling, and highly respectable citizens take part in it. But the main betting interest depends on the existence of a class of skilled professional gamblers, earning high profits in a carefully thought out business. The public at large are their dupes, and the popular newspaper sets the toils. The art of "tipping" has now reached a high development,

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which indeed exhibits its absurdity in a sufficiently glaring light, but does not stop its patrons. Horses are "selected" to win a race, not by one, but by two, three, or more "tipsters." The true sportsman, therefore, can range, if he pleases, over nearly the entire field, which, indeed, he could do without the aid of these importunate prophets. The early editions of the evening papers sell almost entirely on such distracting predictions—indeed, are produced in the main to meet the demand of the racing public; and later editions also depend on racing news. It is needless to say that all these prophecies turn out, in the end, to be worthless. A run of luck for one of these vendors of excitement for foolish people helps his journal, and for the moment depreciates his rival. But the business is pure illusion. Its net effect is the encouragement of the trade of the bookmaker, a considerable deduction from the wages of hundreds of thousands of workmen, the wasting of their capacity for serious interest, and the ruin of many modest homes.

It is this want of seriousness in the popular press which is its most discouraging feature. This fault extends not merely to the daily newspaper, with which this article is largely concerned, but to the monthly and weekly periodicals. How many of the old serious monthlies have disappeared! *Good Words* and *The Leisure Hour* were the companions of our youth. They were serious publications—perhaps a little dull now and then; but they were competent and, on the whole, thoroughly interesting. Some of the most distinguished men of their day wrote for them or drew for them. Other semi-educational papers—like *Cassell's Saturday Journal*—are greatly changed, and not for the better. Such productions as *Answers*, *Pearson's*, and most of the new popular magazines, are, to my mind, unworthy substitutes for the weeklies and monthlies of twenty, thirty, or forty years ago. The old "improving" productions, issued specially for the benefit of the more thoughtful workmen, have almost gone, and such intellectual interests as are now awakened are stimulated by prize-givings and disguised lotteries, the only gift required being a mechanical ingenuity or industry. Articles get shorter and shorter. Consecutive thought on a single subject is discouraged, and the mind is distracted, like a countryman's at a fair, by a continual series of peep-shows. There is nothing gross about the letterpress; only it is rather inane, and it serves no educational purpose.

These changes involve modifications in the status and character of the journalist. In the older penny newspapers a sharp distinction in position and reward was made between the leader-writers—the men who formed opinion—and those who furnished the reporting columns. These differences tend to disappear. "Leaders" are less cultivated than formerly. Many

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of the halfpenny newspapers confine themselves to one brief leading article, as against the three or four lengthy essays of their predecessors. On the other hand, the news columns have become the pith of the paper. Nearly everything is treated descriptively. Long reports (save of spiced and exciting law cases) are eschewed. The journalist is encouraged to write with "smartness;" in a fresh, unconventional style, and in short paragraphs. In a sense, this is a gain on the old cumbrous, indirect "journalese" of the *Telegraph* of Sala's and Arnold's days. Moreover, the special articles are often well done. Good prices are given for them, and distinguished or capable writers contribute them. But for the most part the paper is served by young men fresh from school or college. Expensive and specially-trained powers are at a discount, and I should say that the average salaries paid for literary work have declined. The writers are engaged on short notice, and the American plan of organising the staff is largely followed. Thus the news editor becomes more and more powerful, and the literary editor tends to lose his supreme direction of the journal.

On the other hand, there are some compensations. The modern cheap newspaper is brighter and more varied than the journal of the mid-Victorian period. It touches more interests, and its reporters, encouraged to see things for themselves and to put personality into their work, sometimes explore social evils and phenomena with ability and thoroughness. Moreover, it has largely opened the book world to the daily reader. The daily newspaper treats books, as it treats everything, as news. The graver journals have excellent reviews and book supplements—the *Times*, for example, is beyond all praise, though the display of personal force and knowledge which Dr. Nicoll, for example, supplies to the *British Weekly* is usually absent. Moreover, the proprietors have gone into the classical book trade. They furnish libraries on the hire system. Their selections are usually in competent hands, and supply the place of the "popular educators" of bygone days. This is a healthy development, which in time may stimulate a new demand for good books, which the cheap newspapers do something, by their general character and tendencies, to destroy. On the other hand, their fiction is usually bad. It is often mechanically made. One house, I am told, keeps one set of gentlemen for plot-making, another set for the actual writing of the sensational stuff in which it deals.

Generally, the modern newspaper organisation tends to become a great monopoly trade, dealing in all kinds of popular work, and having the commercial advantage over its elder rivals that it gives full employment to its machinery and staff, by virtue of the diversity

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and constancy of its productions. Its presses are always running; its staff distributes its energies among its various enterprises. It has aimed, in two instances, at a huge syndicated industry, buying up papers of all shades of opinion, and feeding them from common news centres, irrespective of their traditional political views. The next step to monopolist production will be monopolist distribution. Control by one or two firms of the railway distributing centres would be a crushing blow struck at free newspaper development. It would be undertaken mainly in the interest of the possessing classes, for workmen's movements could not in the nature of things attract the promoters of a business based largely on the favour of the great advertisers. The smaller middle classes would be favoured for a while, but, on the whole, capital is likely to be the power which a modern English newspaper syndicate will promote.

The result of the great change in the production of newspapers which I have sketched must be, on the whole, unfavourable to progressive movements. Its consequences are already visible in the starting of special organs of labour similar to those which sustained the Chartists. The *Clarion* and the *Labour Leader* may cater for one-sided or extreme views, but they stand, on the whole, for the needs and ideas which the more reactionary of the new journals ignore or fear and dislike, and the best of them cannot, in the nature of things, fully represent. Their power is derived in the main from energetic personalities like Mr. Robert Blatchford and Mr. Keir Hardie, who are thus able to supply the direct and stimulating teaching of which the age stands in need. Cleverness is not banished from the new journalism; in a sense it is a feature of well-organised and carefully thought-out sheets like the *Daily Mail*. But aversion from ideas is a characteristic of this class of journal. Its business is to be merely interesting to the reader in the train, or in the 'bus, or by the seaside, and the increasing haste and preoccupation of modern city life render this appeal more and more superficial. Everything, indeed, is touched in a way, religion, morals, art, science, politics, social problems, but only as the colours succeed each other in a kaleidoscope. The reader grasps nothing definite; his mind strays too quickly from one mental object to another.

All, therefore, that Co-operation and Trade Unionism and such forces can expect from the great firms likely for some time to predominate in the newspaper world is occasional publicity for their doings, a conventional praise of that side of their activities whose usefulness all the world admits. The propaganda of ideals and new departures belongs elsewhere, but it is not likely for that reason to die out of the hearts and intelligences of men and women.

The Awakening of China.

BY EDWARD CARPENTER.

I.

IN speaking of the awakening of China, it is necessary to guard against a misconception still greatly current, namely that the Chinese are a backward, ignorant nation, slumbering in a kind of age-long lethargy. In many respects this notion is the reverse of the truth. In many respects the Chinese are the most wide-awake of races. They are certainly one of the most remarkable. Intelligent, observant, accurate, industrious, kindly, polite, tenacious of custom, having an immense history stretching back thousands of years, they are at once among the oldest and the most child-like of peoples—old and wise in the accumulated experience of their own past, yet little more than children in face of some of the problems which to-day the West presents to them. It is only in the latter sense that any awakening of China can be spoken of or expected.

Their historical records come down in a continuous stream from some 4,000 years ago;* and, though there has been constant development during that time, there has been no great break in their institutions. There is no record of a time when they did not occupy the country they now occupy; no record of a time when they had not a monarchical system, in general outline the same as they now possess†—never a time when the great masses of the people were not agricultural as now, never a time when they were not practically self-sufficing and independent of other countries and peoples. Time and time again they have been invaded. Tartars, Manchurians, Mahommedans, Christians, Japanese, Dutch, Portuguese, English, and Russians have poured in upon them; yet they have never been very greatly disturbed. With a smile that is childlike and bland John Chinaman has pursued the even tenor of his way. And his teeming millions, instead of being conquered, have simply swallowed up the invader and continued much as before.

Printing, as is well known, was invented in China 500 years before it was used in Europe; gunpowder even before that—though it shows sadly for the intelligence of the Chinese that they did not

* There is a document preserved in the Shoo-king or Book of History which seems to be an actual survey of the kingdom as it existed in the 23rd century B.C.

† No essential modification can at any period in all the centuries be discovered in their system of Government.—Holcombe, "The Real Chinaman," p. 31.

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use it for killing people with till they were taught by the Europeans! * Their astronomical observations are among the oldest in the world, dating some 2,000 years B.C. As much as seventeen or eighteen hundred years ago they adopted changes of a socialist character, and began to establish their land system on a reasonable basis. Seven or eight hundred years ago they tried the use of an irredeemable paper currency, and found it wanting. † And for centuries past (till quite recently) the military profession has been lapsing into contempt and disuse as unworthy of a great people.

After these considerations it is not very surprising to find that this great nation coming down from the remote past found itself in the early centuries of our era—or at any rate had good reason to think itself—the most advanced and civilised on the whole earth. We read that Marcus Antoninus in A.D. 166 sent an embassy by sea to China to procure the rich silks which that country produced. The culture of silk was brought thence into Europe during the Emperor Justinian's reign. Tea plants were carried from India to China in A.D. 315, and Chinese physicians and Chinese engineers were employed in Persia in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. ‡ From that period onwards its experiences of other peoples were not very favourable. French, Portuguese, Spaniards, Dutch, Russians, and Britons appeared in turn, but their conduct was more that of pirates than of civilised men. More and more did the Celestial Empire learn to look on all outsiders as 'barbarians' and 'foreign devils.' More and more it shut itself away from the world. It established a ring-fence about itself, and lived in isolated superiority. It remained sublimely ignorant of the rise of the great Western nations, and of what we call modern Progress; and so came about the extraordinary result that in 1835 or so, a little before our Opium war with China, that ancient nation, from Emperor to peasant, was living in profoundest ignorance of what we call Modern Civilisation; in sublime, celestial, and indeed quite ludicrous sense of its own superiority over "the red-haired, green-eyed, hairy-faced monsters of the West, with feet one cubit and two-tenths long," who were supposed to inhabit the West, and in the sharpest possible contrast to them, both of life and ideals. §

* By the Portuguese, early in the 17th century.

† It drove the metallic currency out of the country. See "The Real Chinese Question," by Chester Holcombe (Methuen, 1901), p. 231; also a careful history of the paper currency in China, in "Primitive Civilisations," Vol. II., ch. xvi.

‡ See "China" (Bohn Series), p. 19.

§ It is even now commonly supposed in China that the European missionaries dig out the eyes of children in their schools, and, pounding them with other ingredients in a mortar, make of them a magic paste of infernal potency. It was this superstition that led to the awful Tientsin massacre in 1870.

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It may be that our ignorance of China is in reality little less remarkable than theirs concerning us. We most of us think we know something about the subject. We have relations or friends who have been along the Coast, and who have brought back outlandish tales; we have read similar accounts in the columns of the daily Press; but such things hardly touch the fringe of the matter. In all such cases where along a seaboard one race or civilisation comes into direct contact with another race and civilisation the result is—just what one might expect—a disorganisation and corruption of *both*. Probably there are few more corrupt *European* populations than those you find at Hongkong, Shanghai, and the other ports along that coast. And, on the other hand, the Chinese populations in those places give you no more just idea of the great interior of China than a stroll down Ratcliffe Highway and the London Docks would give you of British home life and industry. The mass of books and print dealing with China describe this motley, mongrel, and degenerate civilisation of the seaboard. Nevertheless there is a literature dealing with the true Interior, and sufficient, at any rate with a little study—and with plentiful allowance for dark patches (as for superstitions, cruelties, ignorance, poverty, famines, &c.)—to give us a glimpse of a vast ocean of population, not to be counted at much less than 400,000,000, and probably the most stable, the most well-rooted, the most content, equal, agricultural and peace-loving on the whole earth.*

This may sound too strongly worded; but, in order to show that there is some foundation for the view, I will first quote a few general remarks by well-known and reliable authorities on the subject, and then proceed to a more detailed account.

Professor Giles, in his "Historic China and Sketches," says (p. 124): "Food and lodging are cheap in China, and it may be roundly stated that every man, woman, and child has something in the way of clothes, two full meals a day, and a shelter at night;" also "The normal state of the people of China is one of considerable prosperity and great natural happiness." Fortune, in his "Residence among the Chinese," says: "I doubt if there is a happier race

* Some of the best books on this subject are:—"The Middle Kingdom," by S. Wells Williams, 2 vols. (New York, 1883); "Primitive Civilisations," by E. J. Simcox (Sonnenschein, 1894), Vol. II.; "La Cité Chinoise," by Eugène Simon (Paris, 1894); "Historic China and Sketches," by Prof. H. A. Giles; "The Real Chinaman," by Chester Holcombe (Hodder and Stoughton, 1895); "The Real Chinese Question," by Chester Holcombe (Methuen, 1900); "These from the Land of Sinim," by Sir Robert Hart (Chapman and Hall, 1901); "China's Only Hope," by the Viceroy Chang Chih Tung (Oliphant, Anderson, and Ferrier, 1901); "China in Transformation," by A. R. Colquhoun (Harper Bros., 1898); "Intimate China," by Mrs. A. J. Little.

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anywhere than the Chinese farmers and peasantry;" and A. J. Little in "Through the Yangtse Gorges": "Riches are fairly distributed, and the contrast of grinding poverty with arrogant wealth, which is the rule in Europe, is the exception here."

I will now sketch out very roughly some of the leading ideas and institutions of the Chinese polity, premising of course that over a country so vast as China, with its various climates, races, dialects, &c., there is necessarily a considerable variation in details;* also that my object is not to excite an ignorant attention by the recital of wonders and absurdities, nor to flatter our own complacency by dwelling on the follies or failures of a distant civilisation, but to point out the great constructive lines and inspirations of that civilisation (surely one of the most remarkable in the world); and then to pass on to a consideration of what great changes are likely to ensue both in itself and abroad owing to its contact with the civilisations of the West.

One of the most salient, and to us most interesting, characteristics of China is the essential Democracy of its institutions, and the sense and practice of Equality among its populations. Unlike India, we may almost say that there is no hereditary class or caste in China. The only caste is the Literary Caste, from which all officials are taken, and admission to this (by examination) is so free and open that the ascent of a boy of the poorest family to the highest positions and honours is quite usual and excites no special notice. Eugène Simon, whose knowledge of China is most intimate, asserts (*"La Cité Chinoise,"* p. 62) that it is rare to find a family, however lowly, which has not some member, close or distant, of highest rank; and that owing to this perpetual rise and fall in station the whole population is leavened through with the sentiment of equality; and of course correspondingly, with the sense of its own dignity. While Chester Holcombe, in *"The Real Chinese Question"* (p. 62), goes so far as to say that "during many centuries the heads of the Government, always excepting the Emperor, have commonly been the sons of poor unknown parents."

In all countries class divisions create arrogance, insolence, servility, and boorishness. In China a necessary result of the general sense of equality is good manners. Nothing is more cultivated

* It is interesting, however, to find that writers agree on the essential homogeneity of the Chinese people. Chester Holcombe says: "History furnishes no parallel of any race or nation of noticeable size so homogeneous, so uniform, and so intense in its characteristics. Their nationality is burned into them. They cannot slough it off or exchange it for any other. They absorb other races. But they remain always Chinese." *"The Real Chinese Question,"* p. 96. See also *"Primitive Civilisations,"* Vol. II., p. 290.

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than politeness. Even the beggar must be treated with the respect due to a perfect gentleman. And it is said that the early Christian missionaries, accustomed to the behaviour of carters in their own Western lands—where, if two met in a narrow lane, they would often fall to violent language and sometimes to blows—were astonished to see Chinamen in a similar situation bowing to each other with the utmost deference, and apologising profusely for getting in each other's way!

Again, this sense of equality and good manners is closely connected with the whole manner of life of these vast populations. There is no country in the world where a large population is spread out over the land in secure cultivation of innumerable small holdings, and in modest family independence and prosperity, to a like degree as in China. Everything in Chinese history is ancient, and at an early period the phases, first of the village commune and then of the agglomeration of lands into private hands, were passed through. The evils of the latter state of affairs were realised, and many laws and regulations were adopted for the purpose of checking the growth of large estates and of a landless class. Among these was a special tax on arable land not cultivated,* doubtless with the object of discouraging indolent ownership. And the result of all these measures and movements, extending over many centuries, has been that, at the present time, not only is it most rare for anyone to own or occupy more than, say, 250 acres, but there is an unwritten law of public opinion which makes it discreditable to do so, or to live upon the rents of land without being actually engaged in their cultivation.† The State from the very earliest times has exercised a kind of overlordship over the lands and assessed a tax upon them, which in the present day runs to about 20d. to 22d. per acre.‡ Subject to this tax a family is perfectly secure in its tenure, or may rent out portions of its land to others—a thing not infrequently done as a matter of convenience between *bona-fide* cultivators, though not approved of on such a scale as would lead to mere landlordism.

The consequence of all this is that all the more productive parts of China—the plains of the great rivers and the slopes of the lower hills—present to-day a scene of extraordinary fertility and of

* See "Primitive Civilisations," Vol. II., p. 50.

† Simon, "La Cité Chinoise," p. 37.

‡ Rev. A. Williamson, "Journeys in Northern China," 1870, p. 167. Professor S. Wells Williams says it varies from 20 to 66 cents (say 10d. to 2s. 9d.) per acre, according to quality of land, &c. ("The Middle Kingdom," Vol. I., p. 294.) The revenue of China, except for a small amount in *likin* dues and Customs, is entirely derived from the Land Tax.

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widespread democratic industry. For hundreds of miles together the land is covered by an immense patchwork or network of small holdings—of an average size, perhaps, of five or six acres, and rarely exceeding fifty acres—running together into small hamlets or clusters of cottages, each with their school or meeting house, their wells and lift-pumps worked by buffalos, their tanks and irrigation channels. Here are grown crops of the most varied and valuable kind—tea-bushes planted in orderly lines and patches, groves of oranges, clumps of bamboo or sugar cane, verdant squares of young rice, pollard mulberries for the silkworms, plots of cotton and maize and wheat and yam and clover, not to mention less known things like wax trees and varnish trees. John Chinaman, as is well known, is about the best agriculturist in the world. For centuries and centuries the country has been face to face with the problem of supporting its immense population off its own lands, and though necessarily at times and places, in seasons of drought or social disturbance, the pressure of population on the means of subsistence produces frightful famines and widespread distress, yet, on the whole, the manner in which this problem is solved is the admiration of all observers. Simon gives very detailed and interesting accounts of the Chinese agricultural methods, and says it is not uncommon for a Chinaman to obtain five or six crops in a year off one plot of ground.*

Over all this land may be seen the silver threads of irrigation-canals and ditches, skirting the hills for scores and hundreds of miles—often three or four tiers of them one above another—and serpentine down to the lower slopes and plains. Irrigation for thousands of years has been one of the main public objects, and innumerable public or private efforts and benefactions have enriched the country with its present complete system, without which of course its agriculture could not be carried on. The larger canals too form waterways for boats and traffic, and the hamlets, villages, and occasional large towns are knit together by innumerable footpaths, and a few but not many highroads for wheel traffic. Of this industrial and commercial life we read:—

China is one great hive of commerce. Every part is reached from every other part. The whole business certainly is done under the most antiquated, cumbersome, and expensive methods, and with an enormous waste of time. But it is done. The inns everywhere are full of business travelers. The rivers and canals are crowded with cargo-carrying craft of every description, and bound in every direction. The roads and mountain passes are clamorous with the shouts and calls of drivers of camels, drivers of horses, mules, and donkeys, and with porters of every age and both sexes, all loaded to the extreme limit of endurance with every nameable class or description of goods, bound for a

* "La Cité Chinoise," pp. 304, 305.

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market. There are native banks of exchange in every city of size, by means of which money may be safely remitted to any part of China, however remote. And, in addition to the Government service of couriers, there are postal and express companies which transmit letters and parcels everywhere.*

But the cultivation and occupation of the Land is the main thing. Every family in China desires to be rooted in the land—to have a few acres of its own, a family burial place, and a spot sacred to ancestor-worship. Though folk emigrate to the towns (and towns of a million population are not so rare), still, it is but for a time. The great object is to make a little money, purchase a plot, and establish oneself and descendants on the land.

Thus one great root of Chinese life is the Land. The other is the Family. And I must give a few lines to the family.

The family in China does not mean quite the same as with us. It is a term of wider import. It not only means man and wife and their children, but it often also includes married sons and their wives and children, and may also include brothers of the man and their families and descendants. It largely goes with the land. When a younger son marries he may stay on with his wife and young family in the household of his father; but as soon as he can afford it he will generally obtain a plot of land for himself and plant himself out (since his elder brother or brothers will remain on the ancestral plot). He will thus found a new family or ancestral branch, and secure a place where his own memory and presence may be kept green and sacred. Ancestor-worship lies at the back of the whole life of China and of Japan; but it is a very difficult thing for us Westerners to understand. It is not at all what we at first think—namely a pious respect paid to the virtue and character of a predecessor—or at least it is something much *more*, and more intimate, than that. It is a very real sense of the *presence* of that ancestor, and of his or her continued life within and around the living person. He (or she) is here still, though unseen, is looking out of our eyes, hearing with our ears, is moving and working and influencing events in our neighbourhood.† Hundreds, thousands of the dead surround us. We shall in time join their company.‡ All life is given a kind of sacredness through this cause.

The Chinaman sets apart a room for the worship of his forbears. If he is too poor to afford a whole room, he still sets apart one end of a room. There, on shelves, are placed the memorial tablets of

* "The Real Chinese Question," p. 328.

† See Lafcadio Hearn in "Kokoro," p. 270: "To Japanese thought the dead are not less real than the living. They take part in the daily life of the people—sharing the humblest sorrows and the humblest joys."

‡ It will be remembered that General Nogi in the Russo-Japanese War addressed the spirits of the dead soldiers, informing them of the late victories, and thanking them for their co-operation.

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his ancestors, or of deceased members of his family. On a table in front flowers are placed, and on occasions incense is burnt. Here he comes to meditate; and here, once a fortnight or once a month, is held the family conclave or meeting.

This is a weighty affair, and holds an important place not only in the life of the Family, but of the Nation. As we have said, the family group may form a numerous body. The members gather together, dressed in holiday attire. The head of the family—who is generally of course a man, but occasionally a widowed mother or grandmother—conducts a sort of service. There is an invocation to Heaven and to the spirits of the departed ancestors; and then, turning to the table in the centre of the room, the head of the family opens the record book—in which all family events and histories have been inscribed—and reads from it the life of some one or other of the ancestors or predecessors; changing of course each time, so that in the course of two or three years the younger members of the family become quite familiar with the histories of those who have gone before them, and can surely profit by them for encouragement or warning. The history having been read, the head of the house goes on to fill up the book to date from the last meeting with the events which have happened in the interval—the births, deaths, marriages, and lesser happenings—and then the meeting resolves itself into a sort of tribunal to pass judgment, if necessary, on the actions of the various members.

This is a very important and very interesting function of the family assembly, and it has a bearing far beyond the immediate life of the family, for it in reality takes the place and does most of the work of our magistrates and police courts. In China the honour of the family is of the most sacred character, and is upheld before all things. To strike a father or mother is punishable by death—whatever the provocation may be. And anything which tarnishes or slurs the family name is resented to the highest degree. The family therefore keeps the strictest watch upon its own members; and if at any monthly meeting there is an accusation lying against a member—perhaps preferred by some neighbouring family—as of quarrel, or theft, or any misdemeanour, this is gone into with punctilious care; and the relative is either cleared or, if found guilty, punished by his own people! (the punishment may be a fine, or even blows, and, in quite extreme cases, expulsion from the family). So careful are families in these proceedings, and so great is their sense of public honour, that it appears that in the proceedings of the public and higher courts of the land an entry in a family record book as to any matter of fact is taken as sufficient proof and evidence of that fact—the falsification of a record book being a thing unknown and unthought of.

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According to Simon, one of the first questions asked when the meeting resolves itself into a tribunal is whether every member has duly paid his taxes! and this to us forms a very impressive testimony to their sense of civic honour. Certainly, the institution of the family meeting must produce a great impression on the children, who are thus brought up in an atmosphere alive with the consciousness of public duty and responsibility. And the schools work in the same direction. Their teaching as regards anything resembling science or matters of fact is lamentably bad and absurd, and as regards literature and manners it is overloaded with petty rules and regulations; but as regards the general Confucian principles of justice and sincerity, straightforward dealing, and duty to neighbour and State, it is quite excellent, and indeed superior to *our* school teaching, which for the most part ignores these things. It may be in consequence of this that the standard of public honesty in China is really very high—though this fact is not always admitted by us, and a good deal of official corruption (which certainly exists) is quoted to prove the contrary. Our merchants, however, all agree that the Chinese trader is most reliable to deal with, and that his word is as good as his bond.

The family tribunal—by thus at one stroke, as it were, sweeping off the cases that come before our petty courts—disposes of a vast number of evils which fester round our police courts and police system. Police are reduced to a minimum, and are almost non-existent in the country districts.* The public courts are few in number,† and have only the more serious cases to deal with, often those in which the criminals concerned have been expelled from their families; and though the methods of the courts are summary and often barbaric, yet it is a query whether on the whole they are so much worse than ours.‡

The results of all this on the national life—of the widespread sense and practice of Equality, of the rooting of so vast a population in the Land, of its rooting in the Family, with its own indigenous tribunals, rites, and customs—is to produce a social organisation extraordinarily simple and stable, though loosely compacted,

* "That crime is not very rife in China is sufficiently shown by their having no police force."—Mrs. Archibald Little in "Intimate China," p. 140.

† "A sort of village police is maintained in some districts by the inhabitants under the authority of the village elder."—S. Wells Williams, "Middle Kingdom," Vol. I., p. 483.

‡ The Abbé Huc, in his "Chinese Empire" (Vol. II., ch. vii.), says: "There are four times as many judges in France as in the whole Chinese Empire." And Simon ("La Cité Chinoise," p. 7) speaks strongly of the absence of crime.

† See Holcombe, "The Real Chinaman," ch. ix.

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and a people more thoroughly democratic, more independent of government and self-determining, and less infested by parasitic classes, than perhaps any in the world. There is no Priestly caste in China. The only priests are Buddhist priests, who attend to the little temples scattered here and there on the wilder bits of land, among groves or rocks. And they, in accordance with their religion, are perfectly quiescent and unwilling to interfere with the life of the people. There is, for the reasons mentioned above, no Lawyer caste or profession.* There is no Military caste. The profession of arms, as already hinted, fell into contempt and disuse a thousand years past, and until the date of the late Boxer movement there has been no attempt to revive it. The Manchu dynasty, since its settlement in Peking 250 years ago, has had a bodyguard of some 100,000 men permanently stationed in the neighbourhood, but these soldiers, if soldiers they can be called, were till 1898 or so armed with bows and arrows, and were a mere rabble incapable of discipline or concerted action. The rest of the army in China consists of some 400,000 militia organised by the viceroys and governors of the different provinces, and constituting really fifteen different and independent armies, of which Chester Holcombe says that some are passably effective, while others he has seen were armed with old matchlocks and spears, and fans and umbrellas!† It is evident from this that there is no military profession. China cannot even be said, as a whole, to have an army, for though the viceroys have each their bodies of militia, these act independently of one another.‡ And though doubtless, as I shall presently point out, there *will* be a united national army, it will probably be a very long time, if ever, before the evils of militarism and the military caste grow up in this favoured land.

That a country should exist in the world absolutely free from the dominance of the Priestly, the Legal, and the Military castes§ seems to be too good to be true, and difficult indeed for the Western mind to believe! But when we realise also that the Landlord living on rents and the Share or Bond holder living on the interest of capital

* "The Chinese have an invincible repugnance to lawyers."—"The Real Chinaman," p. 30.

† "Chinese Question," p. 129. See also account of a Chinese Military Review, by Mrs. A. Little, "Intimate China," ch. xiv.; and Abbé Huc's "Chinese Empire," Vol. I., ch. x., on the absurdities of the Chinese Army. Now, however, all this is rapidly being altered.

‡ In the case of the Japano-Chinese War, for instance, the viceroys of the middle and south of China did not move at all, and sent no military help to Peking.

§ And we may add the Medical profession; see article on "Chinese Daily Life," by J. K. Goodrich, "Forum," October, 1899.

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lent out to others* are so rare as to be practically negligible—that there are, in fact, no landlord or capitalist *classes*—our wonder must surely deepen into admiration, possibly even to envy; and we can hardly avoid asking ourselves the question whether what we have been pleased to call China's awakening may not, after all, mean the awakening of Europe!

However, do not let us go too fast. If in the socialist or semi-socialistic nature of her institutions China is undoubtedly admirable, she equally certainly suffers from a defect which Socialism in Europe will have to be on its guard against, *i.e.*, the bribery and corruption of officials. This is the weak point of Chinese public life. The 'squeeze' is universal.

The native residents of Peking have a saying, as describing the universal speculation, that when the Imperial milk-wagon reaches the outer gate of the city the official on duty there takes out a cup of milk and puts in a cup of water. At each gate and police-station within the city passed by the wagon this process of extraction and substitution is repeated, with the result that when the fluid eventually reaches the Imperial table no trace of milk, even in colour, can be detected. They are also somewhat fond of saying that the Emperor is the poorest man in all China.†

This illustration of the Imperial milk-wagon apparently applies to the collection of taxes and revenue all over the country. A tax is collected by a minor official (often at considerably higher than the legal rate), and is handed over to superior officials, who in their turn deliver it to the viceroy of the province. He finally has to transfer it, or the balance of it, to the Imperial Treasury. But the 'squeezes' taken out at each and every step of the process are so considerable and so numerous that the balance is only small, and the Imperial Government remains poor.

Chinese apologists for this state of affairs say—and certainly with a good deal of truth—that the salaries allowed to officials by Government are merely nominal, and are recognised to be so. The regular salary, for instance, of a viceroy is only about £100 a year; special allowances for this and that increase it to about £1,000; but of course the quite unavoidable expenses of the office far exceed the latter amount, and the public who pay the taxes are quite content that a portion of them should go to provide irregular additions to the regular allowance. So with other and lower officials. There is a good deal of give and take all through; every family has relatives among the official classes, and these relatives

* "While in China comparatively few persons live in idleness on the income of their investments, an extraordinary number live on the profits of small capital which they administer themselves."—"Primitive Civilisations," Vol. II., p. 330.

† "The Real Chinese Question," p. 357.

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in turn assist the family, so that the latter has an interest on both sides of the account, and if it is plundered it also shares in the plunder!—or, to put the matter less rudely, it permits and condones the ‘squeeze’ as part of a system of necessary balances and adjustments.

So far the apologist; and, as we have said, with some reason. Nevertheless we must feel that the system is a bad one, with all its irregularities and temptations to speculation, and not conducive to public morality. Especially in the towns and larger centres is this the case. In the country, probably, where everything has to be done more openly and publicly, the evils may be less.

What we have said about the smallness of the revenue flowing in to the Central Government and its small payments to officials—the “poverty of the Emperor” in fact—is important; and there is no understanding of China without it. The Central Government is essentially feeble. It has little money; it has no army; it has next to no police. What can it do? The people go their own way. The taxes run to about 2s. 6d. per head of the population.* Even if that were all spent (say £50,000,000) on public purposes, it would be a small amount for a nation of 400,000,000 population.† (Our United Kingdom, with a tenth of the population, spends three times as much.) The Central Government is weak, and has no power to coerce the people or compel them into forms which they do not like. They go their own way, rooted in the land and in the family, and in their own customs.‡ Even the local mandarins and officials—though sometimes doubtless they abuse their powers—are not by any means independent of the people. Simon describes a case in which a new mandarin having been appointed, who was disliked by the people, the people simply refused to have him, and, politely but firmly turning his sedan-chair round, sent him back to the place whence he came.§ And other instances of the same kind are

* “La Cité Chinoise,” p. 6. Compare also Sir Robert Hart in “These from the Land of Sinim,” p. 64: “Government taxation has always and everywhere been of the lightest possible kind.”

† Professor S. Wells Williams, reckoning the total revenue (in 1883) at £40,000,000, estimates that of this only £11,000,000 would reach Peking, the rest being retained in the provinces.—“The Middle Kingdom,” Vol. I., p. 290.

‡ “The great fact to be noted, as between the Chinese and their Government, is the almost unexampled liberty which the people enjoy, and the infinitesimally small part which Government plays in the scheme of national life.”—“China in Transformation,” by A. R. Colquhoun, p. 296.

§ In point of fact the Chinese are governed less than any nation in the world. . . . A thousand and one official inspections, interferences, and exactions, common everywhere in America and Europe, are quite unknown in China.”—“The Real Chinese Question,” p. 4.

§ Simon puts the total number of officials for the whole of China at under 30,000.—“Cité Chinoise,” p. 15.

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quoted. There is complete liberty of meeting and of the Press—* rights which are by no means always accorded in Western countries—and, as a matter of fact, discussion and the formation of public opinion are constantly going on even in the smallest hamlets.

It is Western ignorance as to the real relationship between the Central Government and the people of China which is constantly leading even our diplomatists (who ought to know better) into all sorts of blunders. We make a treaty with the Government at Peking (generally under threats of force), and the Chinese Minister of course smilingly defers and procrastinates, and finally yields and signs the treaty. Yet he knows all the time that it is waste paper. What power has he, or the Government, or the Emperor, to enforce the observation of the treaty by his own people? None at all. It may be a treaty to open up certain districts to our commercial agents, or for the remission of certain *likin* dues on foreign goods sent into the interior. Who can compel the people of that district to receive the hated foreigner, or who knows whether the local mandarins will remit those *likin* dues or not? † The Government can only send an order to the viceroy of each province; the viceroy will use his own discretion; he may pass the order on to the mandarins beneath him, or he may not. If he does they also will use their discretion; finally the mandarins may bully the people, but the people, when all is said, will take their own ways, and on them will largely depend the final issue. China, in fact, is like an organism of the jelly-fish type, not very highly sensitive, not having any very marked and ruling centre to which everything is referred; but for that very reason perhaps the more stable and persistent, because its vitality is distributed throughout the whole mass. ‡

But the most interesting—and indeed astonishing—feature in the constitution of China is the Han-Lin Academy and the influence it exercises. In that country, where the military profession is held

* Or there was till a few years ago. "To this day," says Mrs. A. Little, "the Chinese peasant enjoys a degree of liberty and immunity from Government interference unknown on the Continent of Europe. There is no passport system; he can travel where he pleases; he can form and join any kind of association; his Press was free till the Empress Tze Hsi, probably inspired by Russian influence, issued her edict against it in 1898; his right of public meeting and free speech are still unquestioned."—"Intimate China," p. 378. See also "*La Cité Chinoise*," p. 17.

† See on this subject, "China in Transformation," by A. R. Colquhoun, note, p. 163.

‡ A. R. Colquhoun very aptly compares China to a mass of protoplasm, and likens the family and village groups "to an infinite multitude of water-tight cells, which keep the whole mass afloat even in the most turbulent sea."—"China in Transformation," p. 284.

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in contempt and the merchant class accounted lowest in public rank,* literature has for centuries been held in the highest honour. Thousands of candidates press to Peking and other cities every year for the examinations. To take the degrees, to become a member of the privileged and literary class, respected everywhere, and so to have a chance of gaining official position, is the aim of millions. The poorest families will make heroic sacrifices to enable one of their members to become a scholar. It is said that there must be some 700,000 Chinese graduates now living. So widespread indeed is the interest in literature that it is quite common to find holiday-folk (as is seen also in Japan) spending their afternoon in the country capping verses or writing odes in amicable rivalry.

The Han-Lin College or Academy was founded in A.D. 740,† or nearly 1,200 years ago, by an Emperor of the Han dynasty, as a sort of advisory body. It now consists of some 240 members, each of whom is granted by the State a house and garden and a modest pecuniary allowance. But it has these privileges as an immemorial right, and is in no way dependent on the Government; on the contrary, it has the right, and it is part of its duty, to criticise the latter, and even the Emperor himself. The College *elects itself*—that is, when a vacancy occurs it elects the new member, and of course always from those who are already most distinguished as scholars. Thus, like our Fellows' bodies and learned societies in the West, it keeps up its own traditions. Its duties are (1) discussion, (2) dissemination of its conclusions throughout the nation, and (3) censorship of individuals (officials).

It discusses anything: any question which affects the welfare of the people. This may be a foreign treaty, or it may be a new method in education, or it may be some small detail in agriculture. *But the College has no legislative or executive power.* It can neither pass a law nor issue a command of any kind. All it can do is, when it has arrived at a conclusion, to issue a leaflet or pamphlet on the subject. This may be a leaflet recommending some method of dealing with an insect pest in the gardens, it may be a pamphlet protesting against a foreign treaty, or it may (as happened lately) be one urging the adoption of Western science in the schools. Whatever it is, the circular has an enormous publicity; it goes by millions of copies through the land, and is read and debated in

* The four grades of the Chinese polity, in order of respect, are said to be *shih*, *nung*, *kung*, and *shang*, or scholar, farmer, artisan, and merchant. The first are the brains, the second the producers, the third the producers at second-hand, and the fourth the mere exchangers.

† The literary class and examination system, however, had existed long before this.

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every little hamlet. And if the recommendations suggested meet with a wide and warm public approval it not infrequently happens that the Government takes them up, and they pass into the laws or institutions of the country. Very little, I believe, ever passes into the public law in China without this previous circulation and approving discussion—for the simple reason that without this there would be no security that the people would conform to it.

II.

I have dwelt thus long upon the conditions of life in China without coming to the gist of my paper, namely the results which may be expected from the contact of that life with Western civilisation—because, in fact, without a fair understanding of the former it is impossible to estimate the latter.

The first awakening of China to the growth of what we call the modern Western world undoubtedly occurred in 1839–40, when the guns of British frigates at Canton boomed out our demand for the admission of opium into that port. Into the details of that oft-told tale, so dishonouring to Britain, it is not necessary for us to go. China for centuries had taken her own way in complete ignorance and indeed oblivion of the outer world. Now suddenly the whole proceedings opened her eyes to two great facts:—(1) The existence of nations there in the “West” possessed of demonic powers and hellish engines of destruction; (2) their apparently entire unscrupulousness in the use of these powers in the service of gain and trading profit. Considering that the trader, as we have already pointed out, ranks as the lowest class in the Chinese polity, and that trade (as apart from industrial *production*) has always been looked upon as beneath the notice of the ruling classes and officials—that it is, in fact, almost impossible to get them to take any interest in it—one can begin to understand the strange and sinister impression produced. Naturally it was many years before the new tidings about the “barbarians” and “foreign devils” penetrated the whole mass of the nation. But unfortunately succeeding events did nothing to remove the first impression, only confirmed it. Envoys from Britain, France, and the United States pressed for right of residence in China, always in the name of Trade, and backed their demands always by Force. China persistently refused their admittance, but in 1860 a combined force of English and French destroyed the Taku forts,* captured Tientsin, and the Peking Legations were established. Other events of the same

* On the plea that the Chinese had not observed the treaty of 1858; but we have already seen what the nature of a Chinese treaty must be.

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character followed, and with the same result. The Chinese, overwhelmed by force, had to give way. Always the Western war vessels grew larger and more threatening, always their cannon more terrible and destructive. Till in 1894-5 came the Japan and China war, and, with the defeat of China, loud and open talk among the Western Powers of her dismemberment.

It was only then, just at the close of the last century, and after some fifty or sixty years of rude awakening cuffs and blows, that China *en masse* began to rouse herself to meet the situation. Her haughty and ignorant contempt of the Western peoples as mere hordes of savages* was giving way to astonishment at their mechanical and scientific powers, if also with added hatred of them because of their powers. Japan had already tackled the problem, had educated and armed herself, but China lay helpless and incapable. What was to be done? A huge popular movement—the 'Boxer' movement—ignorant and superstitious, but full of enthusiasm and determination to oust the foreigner, began to grow up. And the Han-Lin Academy came in to make appeal to the more thoughtful part of the nation.

The action of the Academy in this matter is full of interest and suggestion, and I must dwell on it for a moment. As a rule it would appear that the Academy is a somewhat conservative body, bound up, no doubt, to a great extent with the old national ideals and the Confucian tradition; but, having debated this matter of the foreigner, it seems that a majority was in favour of issuing an appeal to the country—a call to arms, in fact, and a call to Western science and education. The writing of this appeal was committed to Chang Chih Tung, China's "greatest viceroy," and the pamphlet, presented by the Academy and endorsed by the Emperor, was duly printed and circulated. It has probably by now circulated by millions of copies.† China's only hope, the author explains, consists in the strengthening of her army and military power by the adoption of modern methods and implements of war; in the improvement of her schools by the introduction of science and Western teaching; and in getting into touch with Western ideas by means of travel, translation of books, &c. At the same time the solid and world-old bases of Chinese life and

* Even as late as 1864 the Chinese Government "declined to negotiate a treaty with the Kingdom of Prussia, because it had never heard of any such country!"—"The Real Chinese Question," p. 185.

† A translation of this pamphlet, called "China's Only Hope" (Oliphant, Anderson, and Ferrier, 1901), pp. 150, can now be obtained, and is well worth reading. Its circulation in China, prior to translation in 1900, was put at a million copies.

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citizenship, the laws of Confucius, and the worship of the ancestors, must by no means be deserted, for it is only on these that a secure edifice can be erected.

The following are some quotations from the book. Speaking of education in the schools, the author says (page 100):—

The old and new must both be taught; by the old is meant the Four Books, the Five Classics, history, government, and geography of China; by the new, Western government, science, and history. Both are imperative, but we repeat that the old is to form the basis, and the new is for practical purposes. Under the head of Western Government come the comparative study of governments and science, colleges, geography, political economy, customs, taxes, military regulations, laws, and expositions. Under Western Science are classed mathematics, mining, therapeutics, sound, light, chemistry, and electricity.

Among other suggestions for providing money for these improved schools, he says:—

Convert the temples and monasteries of the Buddhists and Taoists into schools.* To-day these exist in myriads. Every important city has more than a hundred. Temple lands and incomes are in most cases attached to them. If all these are appropriated to educational purposes we guarantee plenty of money and means to carry out the plan (p. 99).

We must put the useful books of the West into Chinese, and scatter them far and wide among those who are ignorant of Western languages, among the wide-awake officials, the impecunious *literati*, the scholars replete with Confucian lore, the merchants, workmen, the old and the young, to be used and appropriated by them in their different spheres (p. 113).

Travel must not be neglected.

The diminutive country of Japan has suddenly sprung into prominence. Ito, Yamagata, Yanomoto, Mutsui, and others visited foreign countries twenty years ago, and learned a method by which to escape the coercion of Europe. Under their leadership more than one hundred Japanese students were sent to Germany, France, and England to learn foreign systems of conducting government, commerce, war, &c. After these had completed their course they were recalled and employed by the Japanese Government as generals and Ministers. When the Government was once changed they developed into the Heroes of the Orient (p. 92).

And he goes on to urge the sending of Chinese students to Japan and the West, for a similar purpose. Railways must also be constructed.

Let us build railways, and then the scholars can have easy communication with distant friends, the farmer can utilise much that is now waste, the merchant can readily meet the demand for supply, forwarding the heaviest

* This advice was actually followed to some extent; but after the seizure of the throne by the Dowager Empress the temples and monasteries were restored to their former uses. (See "The Story of China," by R. K. Douglas, p. 454.) In the last few years, however, some fifteen new universities have been established.

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material, the workmen will soon find machinery everywhere, the abundant products of the mines will be beneficially distributed, and our China coast will be securely protected and guarded by myriads of efficient troops. . . . The whole country will become really ours, and China will be one great united family, with no fear of famine or war (p. 126).

As to the nations of Europe, there is no trust to be placed in their promises; they are

like tigers with dripping jaws (p. 81). They talk of peace and mean war. Austria first instituted the Disarmament Society. Immediately afterwards the war between Russia and Turkey broke out. Then Germany attacked Africa, England attacked Egypt and Thibet, France conquered Madagascar, and Spain Cuba. . . . Germany has seized upon our Kiaochou, and Russia has appropriated our Port Arthur. . . . If we talk of disarmament to the other countries without the force to back up our words we will become the laughing-stock of the world. . . . *Drilling* troops is better than disbanding them. With fifty warships on the sea and thirty myriads of troops on land, with daily additions to both ships and troops, with the daily strengthening of our forts and equipping them with the best engines of modern warfare, and with the railways intersecting the land, what country would dare to begin hostilities with China or in any way infringe upon her treaty rights? Under these conditions Japan will side with China, Europe will retire, and the Far East will be at rest (p. 140).

Finally, comparing China with the West, he says:—

Although China is not so wealthy and powerful as the West, her people of whatever condition—rich or poor, high or low—all enjoy a perfect freedom and a happy life. Not so all the inhabitants of Western lands. Their Governments may be strong; but the lower classes of the people are miserable, unhappy, and maliciously wronged. Their liberties are restrained, and there is no redress. They rise in rebellion on every opportunity, and not a year passes without an account of the murder of some King or the stabbing of some Minister. These Governments certainly cannot be compared with our China (p. 41).

I have given these copious extracts from the book because I think they are surely very interesting—not only as giving the words of a great Chinese statesman, but as representing the views of, at any rate, a large section of the Han-Lin Academy, and a *résumé* of the programme which is now, one may say without exaggeration, being discussed by peasant and prince alike all over the vast demesne of Chinese territory.

This programme is in fact—though of course there are dissentients to it—being rapidly carried out. We know what Japan has done; but China is far older and more experienced than Japan. If on the one hand she is more wary and slow to move, she is, on the other, equally capable, and, when she moves, inclined to move more permanently and more irresistibly than the younger nation. The Boxer uprising was, and is, largely* the

* Though it seems also that it was greatly stimulated by the publication of "China's Only Hope" (see p. 6 of that book).

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instinctive solution of the problem by the popular masses. It put power into the hands of the Empress Dowager for her *coup d'état*, and she and her party in turn supported and reinforced it. It led to the attacks on the Peking Legations in 1900. It meant, and means, "Out with the foreigner" and "China for the Chinese." And the movement has come to stay. Sir Robert Hart, who probably knows China as well as any living Englishman, says: "In fifty years' time there will be millions of Boxers in serried ranks and war's panoply at the call of the Chinese Government: there is not the slightest doubt of that."* Nor can we for a moment doubt that the Chinese, though averse to change, have just as great technical ability as the Japanese, and if they once come to realise the need of its application in modern arts of war or peace will excel, just as the Japanese have done. The telegraph and telephone, at their first appearance, were resisted to the utmost; but now already their wires reach like a web all over the Flowery Land. The people are like that—tenacious of old custom, yet once in motion exceedingly quick to take up a new position. And Sir Robert Hart warmly endorses the words of Wên Hsiang, the Prime Minister of China in the early sixties, who said:—

You are all too anxious to awake us and start us on a new road, and you will do it; but you will all regret it, for, once awake and started, we shall go fast and far—farther than you think—much farther than you want!†

To this movement of China against the foreigner and towards her own independence the victory of Japan over Russia has come like a seal of security. The autonomy of the Far East is established. China has only to follow the lead of Japan in cultivation of the arts of war, and the two in combination may set the world at defiance. Already for some years Chinese emissaries and inspectors have been keeping their eyes open in our big steel workshops. Indeed as far back as 1872 the Viceroy Li Hung Chang sent 120 Chinese boys of good family to be educated in the United States, with a view to studying military and naval methods there. Now there are some thousands of young Chinese studying military science either in China or Japan. There are nineteen modern military academies in China, three arsenals turning out rifles and quick-firing guns, and more in process of formation.‡ By 1910, says Putnam Weale, they will have a thoroughly effective army of some 400,000 men, all trained on the Japanese system. Needless to say the European Powers and the United States have learned a lesson, and all talk of dismemberment has ceased.

* "These from the Land of Sinim," p. 55.

† "These from the Land of Sinim," p. 52.

‡ "The Re-shaping of the Far East," by Putnam Weale (1905), Vol. II., ch. xxxiii.

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We may take it, I think, as good as certain that China will rehabilitate her military power, and that (even though there may be attempts against her) there will be no dismemberment. There remain other questions. What about the "Yellow Peril" of invasion?—400,000,000 of Chinese let loose upon the world! What about the awakening of China to trade and commercial life, and the result upon our trades? What about the infiltration of Chinese ideas and social standards among the Western peoples?

1. I think that whoever has followed the general outline of Chinese life and character will find it very difficult to imagine this people deliberately making an armed invasion of other countries. The whole tenor of their temperament and institutions is "Let alone!" "Don't meddle!" They have no dogmatic religion (a frequent cause of wars) to carry at the point of the sword into other countries. They have no strong central government (another frequent cause) ready to serve private ends by the wholesale sacrifice of its own subjects. Their ancestral worship precludes them from forming permanent homes in other lands. In all the long history of the Chinese Empire there is, I believe, hardly a single instance of their invading, in a military sense, another country.* The habits of the people are agricultural and social—not military; the Government, as I have said, is weak and diffused, and though the latter may, in the face of foreign menaces, pull itself together (and is doing so) sufficiently to present a good front *against* invasion, it seems very improbable that it will ever concentrate to the much greater degree necessary for the invasion of other lands. On the other hand the eternal problem of Chinese life—namely the sustenance of so enormous a population on an area of land which, though large, is limited—may one day reach a point of acuteness compelling some kind of irruption beyond their borders. In that case—though it be rash to prophesy—I should think a huge (but peaceful) migration is the most likely thing to happen. And if the infiltration of Western ideas were to go so far (which does not at present seem probable) as to break up the Chinaman's conception of the sanctity of home, and to deaden his urgent desire for burial in ancestral ground—then indeed such migrations might assume proportions quite alarming, and even threatening to the stability of our own civilisations.† However, I think we may put migrations of this magnitude off to a rather remote period, and say for the present that while there is

* The invasions of Japan and Burmah under Kublai Khan cannot fairly be credited to the Chinese.

† Professor Douglas points out ("Story of China," p. 2) that throughout their history the Chinese have mainly conquered other lands by the process of *settling* on them!

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going to be no dismemberment of China by the Western or other Powers, there is, on the other hand, going to be no "Yellow Peril" in the shape of armed invasions of these lands by China.*

• 2. The question of the commercial relations of the New China with Europe and the West is a very interesting one. I think myself that, though there is a large party in China in favour of the "ring-fence" policy, the "open-door" party, supported by Chang Chih Tung, and reinforced by the general tendency of trade development, &c., will almost inevitably gain ground. The more obvious advantages of this policy, the influx of cheap goods, &c., will appeal after a time to the masses of the people; and once the nation, by the establishment of its military strength, has come to feel itself secure, it may possibly be considerably more disposed to admit the trader and the commercial traveller than it has hitherto been. Having mounted its guns, it will not be so afraid of opening the door.

If we suppose the door opened, and (what is already part accomplished) a network of railways giving access to the interior of China, then—for good or evil, and let us hope, for good—a big trade with the Western nations must inevitably spring up. There will, for many years and until the people can manufacture these things for themselves, be a great demand for our steel rails, girders, edge tools, machines, &c., as well as for some classes of our textile fabrics;† and we in return shall be buying Chinese silks, tea, porcelain, spices, &c., more freely. Both parties will no doubt so far be benefited. Then a time will come when, for good or evil, our manufactures and methods of manufacture, our factory system in short, will make headway in China—when they will produce

* Much the same may be said with regard to the Japanese. The lust of invasion or conquest does not seem to have yet seized on them; and there is much in the character and religion of the people antagonistic to it. At the same time the possibility of the overthrow of our Western civilisation by peaceful migrations from the East must not be ignored. To quote Lafcadio Hearn ("Out of the East," pp. 237-241):—"Already thinkers, summarising the experience of the two great colonising nations—thinkers not to be ignored, both French and English—have predicted that the earth will never be fully dominated by the races of the West, and that the future belongs to the Orient. . . . In the simple power of living our so-called higher races are immensely inferior to the races of the Far East. . . . For the Oriental has proved his ability to study and to master the results of our science upon a diet of rice, and on as simple a diet can learn to manufacture and to utilise our most complicated inventions. But the Occidental cannot live except at a cost sufficient for the maintenance of twenty Oriental lives. In our very superiority lies the secret of our fatal weakness. Our physical machinery requires a fuel too costly to pay for the running of it in a perfectly conceivable future period of race-competition and pressure of population."

† The increase in the export of Manchester cotton goods to China has been enormous during the last few years.

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steel rails, big guns, and calico sheeting for themselves; and their workers, as wage-workers, will begin to be crowded by thousands in huge workshops to the sound of machinery.*

What will happen then? It is hard to say. Already in Japan, in a few short years, the introduction of Western commercialism has brought with it problems unknown before—dire increase of poverty, multiplication of unemployed.† What will it do in China? There already the supply of labour is so great that the land is like a cup full to the very brim. Introduce labour-saving machinery, and instantly it will overflow. Millions will be thrown out of work. Terrible commotion and uproar will ensue. Will China plod through all this, through a long period of bloodshed and confusion, to land herself at last only where the Western nations have landed themselves, in the production of a futile society composed of two great classes antagonistic to each other, and both unsatisfactory—one living idly on dividends and the other in a state of monotonous and squalid slavery? It is hardly thinkable. Or will her genius, already so deeply Socialistic, seize on and transform this factory system into a free organisation of guilds,‡ self-dependent and autonomous, sweated by no masters, and ready to use the surplus productiveness of machinery for the shortening of the hours of labour and the absorption of unemployed into the working ranks? We cannot tell. The world can only at present wait, in profound suspense and interest, to see what solution will be given.

That a considerable and important movement in China is imminent seems at least very probable; and this may lead, at any rate for a time, to a great influx of Chinese into Western countries, and to some amount of dislocation of Western trade. With regard to the latter, the production on a large scale of factory-made goods in China and at a very low cost has been held up by not a few writers§ as heralding a period of great disaster to the Western

* It must be remembered that China is well supplied with coal. "Coal exists in every province," says Wells Williams in "The Middle Kingdom." The whole of Southern Shansi is full of coal—beds five, eight, and even ten feet thick. The world could, according to Richtofen, be supplied with coal from Shansi alone for thousands of years! Coal and iron are also abundant in Yunnan. Cotton mills and ironworks already exist in Hanyang, Shanghai, and other places. See "China in Transformation," by A. R. Colquhoun, ch. iii. and ch. v.

† See Lafcadio Hearn, "Japan, an Interpretation."

‡ The Chinese guilds and mutual help societies are most numerous—clubs of young men for starting each other in business; clubs for insurance, burial, recreation, &c.; masonic clubs; secret societies for political purposes, and so forth. "The Chinese have a genius for association," says A. R. Colquhoun, "China in Transformation," p. 297.

§ See Professor C. H. Pearson in "National Life and Character," p. 133; also E. Simon in "La Cité Chinoise," p. 85.

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nations; but we think this view is based on a misconception. The entry of China into the world-market, with cheap goods in her hands, would undoubtedly alter the *currents* of Western trade, causing some items to increase and others to diminish in magnitude. An offer from her, for instance, of good and inexpensive cotton cloths to the world would strike a heavy blow at Lancashire. But—since exports always demand imports in return—if China came into the world-market as a seller, she would also come to the same extent as a *buyer*. The total volume of Western trade would not be diminished, rather increased. Even if Britain lost in one branch of her trade she would probably be the gainer in another. The new arrival would mean a temporary dislocation of Western trade, but it would by no means spell disaster.

There are some also who think that with the development of self-supply through machine and factory production, combined with her own enormous natural internal resources, China will be tempted to abate and ultimately to drop her trade with the West, and to retire once more within her ring-fence. But again—though prophecy is rash—I do not think such a retirement is likely. There is much current misunderstanding of the laws of foreign trade, and the subject is a difficult one, without doubt; but this much is certain, that—granted Free Trade and no artificial walls of Protection around a country—that country, even though capable of producing *everything* it needs within its own borders, will still prefer to exchange some of its products with other countries; and that the more flourishing it is within its own borders the more active probably will its outer exchange be.

It is often thought that if the cost of production of a certain article is higher, say, in Britain than in some other country, there is no chance of that article being demanded from Britain by the said country. But J. S. Mill has conclusively proved that this is not so ("Principles of Political Economy," Book III., ch. xvii.). To use his classic example, if the cost of production of both cloth and corn is greater in Britain than in Poland, it may still happen that British cloth will flow steadily to Poland, and Polish corn flow steadily to Britain, simply because cloth is cheaper *relatively* to corn in Britain, and corn cheaper relatively to cloth in Poland.*

If China, conscious of her own strength, should cast off her prejudice against mercantile relations with the outer world, there is little doubt that she will always find advantage to herself in such relations—both buying and selling. And if the Western

* And so a certain amount of corn sent from Poland would buy more cloth in Britain at British prices than the same amount of corn remaining in Poland would buy of Polish cloth at Polish prices. But the whole chapter should be referred to.

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nations desire to make her their customer, it seems to me that there is probably no better way to do so than to acknowledge her autonomy, give her every pledge of security, and favour in all ways her internal prosperity—and so leave the natural laws of trade and exchange to work themselves out. Lord Salisbury, in a moment of inspiration, once said:—

If I am asked what our policy in China is, my answer is very simple. It is to maintain the Chinese Empire, to prevent it from falling into ruins, to invite it into paths of reform, and to give it every assistance which we are able to give it to perfect its defence or to increase its commercial prosperity.*

And surely a wise and generous national policy in the future *will* recognise this great principle in all foreign trade, that the prosperity of the peoples we deal with also spells our own prosperity.

3. We now come to the third and final question, namely the effect of China's awakening in the way of the interchange of ideas between her and the West. This contact between West and East is one of the most remarkable characteristics of the present age, and one surely fraught with great and important issues for the future. On all sides we see both Eastern and Western peoples being modified by it. The commercial system is breaking down caste in India. The interest in modern science there is growing. Huxley and Darwin seem for the moment to be taking the place of the Vedic sages. On the other hand, in Europe our philosophy is being profoundly altered by Eastern thought, and among the peoples at home doctrines of Karma and Reincarnation are being widely (and even wildly) circulated. Japan has adopted battleships, tall chimneys, and chimney-pot hats; and we are making a pious cult of Japanese art and Japanese simplicity of life. How far is this going to go? Are Asia and Europe going to blend in a uniform colour of civilisation, all alike for the whole globe? and is humanity entering on a last stage of universal Esperanto and Equality? To suppose this would, I think, be a little too previous. While it is perfectly true that India and Japan are being greatly modified by contact with the West, and that the Western nations are being largely coloured by Eastern thought and custom—and greatly to the benefit of both—it is also true that, looking deeper, there is no sign of a radical change of base. India, in view of commercialism, may sweep away many absurdities of her present caste system, but there is no sign that she will abandon its great main outlines, which she has preserved inviolate for thirty centuries. Something the same with her religious philosophy. She will correct that to the data of modern science, but she will not desert it. And so with Japan. While it was thought a little time ago that Japan was

* See Mrs. Archibald Little's "Intimate China," p. 424.

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becoming completely transmogrified in her blind devotion to Western ways and manners, it has now become clear that her full and conscious intention is in a very different direction—namely, merely to adapt and make use of these Western things for the better protection and ultimate expression of her own ideals. She is returning to her own base again instead of going farther from it. As Lafcadio Hearn says ("Out of the East," ch. vii., "Jiujutsu") :—

Despite her railroad and steamship lines, her telegraphs and telephones, her postal service and her express companies, her steel artillery and magazine rifles, her universities and technical schools, she remains just as Oriental to-day as she was a thousand years ago. She has been able to remain herself, and to profit to the utmost possible limit by the strength of the enemy. She has been, and still is, defending herself by the most admirable system of intellectual defence ever heard of—by a marvellous national jiujutsu.

We may apply these remarks to China. The vast probabilities are that China, adopting like Japan a great deal of Western civilisation and thought, will still not move perceptibly from her ancient base of 4,000 years. And when we consider how excellent that base is—fixed deep in the Land, in the Family, in the great moral principles of good Citizenship, and in a Religion spiritual yet void of all dogma—there seems indeed no reason why she should leave it. That the challenge and intrusion of the Western world will benefit China one can hardly doubt. Wrapped and isolated in her own life for centuries, she has certainly lapsed into much feebleness, ignorance, and mere stupid routine; but the sleeper is very far from dead or disabled. Awaking from her dreams she may any day now astonish the world by activities as remarkable as those of Japan, though probably along a different line; and she may, with her long past of experience, leap to the solution of social problems which are almost the despair of the West.

In the West itself the growing knowledge of China and familiarity with her institutions, hitherto so little understood, will surely have a profound influence—a greater influence than that exercised by Japan. About the Japanese civilisation there is a certain lightness of touch, almost a thinness; but China is massive and solid to a degree. When it comes to be recognised what are the causes of China's immense duration down the centuries—the democratic simplicity of her institutions, her affection for the land and determination that every one shall have a share in it, her freedom from parasite classes, and her recognition of the farmer and the artisan as superior to the merchant in importance; the respect, too, paid to letters, to the clan and to the family, the easy handling of domestic, social and legal matters through these powers, the little power of central government, the genius of the people for the formation of free guilds and societies, and so on—it

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is not difficult to see that the European peoples will be inclined to rub their eyes and take many a hint from those they have hitherto despised. Again it is rash to prophecy—but it may be that the fact of the Awakening of the East coming now, at a time when Europe (as we hope) is growing out of her commercial *régime* into nobler ideals, may make a *rapprochement* between East and West all the easier. It has been the fatal and vulgar commercialism of the Westerners which has for long been the greatest barrier between us and the East. "The entire Western atmosphere," says Chester Holbrook, "is intensely repugnant to the Chinese. They have never understood nor admitted that the main purpose for which governments were created was to foster commerce and money-making. From their view-point that is the petty business of petty men." When this obstacle on our side is partly removed there will be the less temptation to China to retire behind her own walls. The peaceful infiltration, too, of Chinese folk into Western lands—which, apart from any more serious movement, will surely go on—and of Chinese of better class (not as hitherto the mere riff-raff and family outcasts), will lead in the same direction and to a better understanding; and may contribute to that great change which one day perhaps will be called the Awakening of the West.



The English Village:

What it is and what it ought to be.

BY JAMES LONG,

*Member of the Departmental Committee on Small Holdings;
Director of the Small Holdings Association; late Commissioner
to the War Office, the Canadian and New Zealand Governments;
Danish and Dutch Medallist.*

WHATEVER village life may have been in the past—the more distant past—it is not all *couleur de rose* in the present. Many of us are accustomed to look upon the English village as typical of the simple life where all is tranquillity and peace—the environment redolent of health as of the scent of flowers; the sun always shining, at least in imagination; the water sparkling like the ever-running brook; the church, the house of joy and hope, praise and blessing, where rich and poor unite week by week on one common ground; the parson God's messenger and man's support and confidant, and the people reliant, trustful, and temperate. Far be it from the writer to desire to destroy this illusion, to judge or condemn—for who is he who doeth not these things that he condemneth? It is well, however, to look facts in the face in the never dying hope that there may be a remedy—if the results of its application are only partial. Nineteenth century progress has done much for men and women. The country gentleman of fifty to a hundred years ago does not drink his bottle of port at a sitting; the trader is no longer obsequious to the rich, nor the labourer a mere serf on the land. Many characteristics of this bygone age have vanished—it is to be hoped for ever—yet the prosperity of the country and the wealth which it has distributed into so many hands has created other vices and failings which are not less to be lamented, and which, considering how many they affect, are calculated to prove—if they are not already proving—disastrous to the happiness and morality of the people.

Village life is not what it should be, and yet it should be within the province of its leaders—the owners and occupiers of the soil, the parson, the minister, and the doctor—to exercise such an

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influence for good that virtue should reign instead of vice, prosperity instead of poverty, progress and stability instead of ignorance and constant migration.

A twentieth century village is usually owned by a small group of landowners. There is not always a squire, as in earlier days. The old families have been largely absorbed, and their places taken by manufacturers, retired traders, and professional men, who possess no traditions, who take to the land as a source of pleasure, and who, as a rule, recognise no claims on their time or their purse such as were inherent to the nature of their predecessors. The modern landowner farms a little on his own account and loses money, although he employs men whom the farmer can ill afford to lose, but who are attracted to the new life by better pay. The broad acres, however—shorn of a few homesteads which the new men adorn with costly buildings and stock with pedigree cattle—are controlled by a handful of farmers, who, in many cases, occupy too much land for their capital, and who would succeed better by halving their farms, doubling their stock, and feeding the soil with four times the quantity of manure it receives. This would admit others who, thirsting for land which is not obtainable, are precluded from following an occupation which would prove beneficial to themselves and the country at large.

Of the remaining male population of the village the majority are labourers and artisans, among whom we may include woodmen, gamekeepers, coachmen, grooms, joiners, blacksmiths, hauliers, gardeners, and jobbers. Shopkeepers complete the list, if in this description we may include the publicans, who, however, exercise an influence for evil, often unknowingly or unthinkingly, but which is, nevertheless, very real. The village shopkeeper of to-day runs a store; and he does not confine himself to a few articles of grocery and provisions, a limited collection of boots and other cheap wearing apparel, but caters for the people with colonial meat, bread (often made in the neighbouring town), cigarettes for the growing youth, and many other commodities which were once foreign to so small an establishment. His charges are often exorbitant, the quality of his goods inferior, and his profits such that he is enabled to make a brave show on Sunday in the shape of costly attire on the backs of his wife and daughters, or to acquire nice little properties from time to time. What we have to say of the publican may be left for the moment. He is, however, oftentimes a useful—and sometimes necessary—person, catering for the bellringers and the Foresters on their annual gatherings, and doing his work better in the light of his resources than many members of his craft in the towns whose premises and pretensions are so much more extensive.

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THE VILLAGE OFFICERS.

The English village, however, is not complete without its officials, and in the light of our subsequent suggestions these personalities must not be omitted. There are the churchwardens—the one appointed by the Vicar, the other by the parish in vestry assembled, a function which, twenty times out of twenty-one, is seldom in order, owing, it is true, to the people themselves, who religiously decline to attend at the vestry meeting. When, however, an occasion arises and competition occurs, feeling runs high—the parish is divided into rival camps, and that form of bitterness which is, unhappily, characteristic of religious strife becomes intensified. Why in these little rural worlds will men persist in regarding the Church of Christ as a political machine? An institution in which peace and goodwill towards men is so great an article of faith is made the medium of passion and hatred at such times, while earnestness of effort is imparted to civil work without the most remote recognition of the object of the Church itself—the salvation of men and women and the promotion of love, meekness, goodness, brotherly kindness, long-suffering, patience, and temperance. The parish warden is usually the chief trader or a leading farmer—sometimes one of the new landowners. On the other hand, the Vicar relies upon an out-and-out supporter of his own, or he deferentially nominates the warden whom he found at the post on his arrival in the parish—the squire, if squire there be, or, in his absence, the socially most important of his parishioners, a retired colonel or the local medical man.

The church, then, is the great institution of the rural village, and among its appendages is the voluntary school, of which the clergyman is director-in-chief or Chairman of Committee in virtue of his office.

The composition of the School Committee varies between village and village. It has long been essential that each Committee-man should be a Churchman—by which term many clergymen define those alone who attend Holy Communion, a qualification which may or may not be a just one, although on this point it is not for man to judge. He must also be a subscriber to the schools. The work of this Committee is practically administrative. It selects the teachers, it collects subscriptions, it prepares the accounts for the Education Department, it pays the salaries of the officials, and it maintains the fabric of the schools in substantial order; but the clergyman is the one member who actually directs the teachers, although his direction mainly relates to religious teaching, which in very many cases takes its entire colour from himself.

The clergymen of our English villages, as a body, are men of high character and lofty aim, but the differences in their views, like

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the differences in their idiosyncrasies, are legion. In my experience as a close acquaintance of a number of these gentlemen I have found the majority earnest, although entertaining divergent opinions, not only as to what constitutes Gospel teaching, but as to their own relationship to their parishioners. Reference to ritual need scarcely be mentioned, for it is too well known that altars, candles, flowers, crucifixes, and vestments are to be found in the village with almost as great frequency as service in its bare simplicity. Elaborate music, the procession of the choir boys, and the rising of the congregation on their entrance from the vestry, are all common and growing practices, owing in part to their attraction for the people, who, as a mass, seek something more than the plain and simple teaching of the Master, which can alone provide for their eternal happiness. I have known the village clergyman who conducted an ornate service and who preached the most charming sermons, who yet regarded his duties as onerous, although practically confined to Sunday, and yet he made little or no attempt to visit his people and to carry comfort and hope to the sick and the poor. I have, too, known the incumbent who, while visiting a limited number of his people, drew a line severely at the Dissenter, and who on all occasions, so far as I ever learned, also drew a line at religious counsel and prayer in the homes of those upon whom he called. In other cases we find Vicars supplying the sick and the poor with food as far as the offertories and their own resources permitted, and skilfully prescribing for those suffering from the simpler forms of sickness. Others, again, are deeply concerned in the conduct of the village club, the reading-room, the Sunday afternoon's meeting for men, the children's service, the week-night prayer meeting, the occasional social gatherings of winter, the annual flower show, and the various other institutions of which the rural village can boast. These are men who are devoting their lives to the people, socially and spiritually—teaching them the way to obtain peace on earth, and how to display goodwill towards men. The difficulties of the clergy are chiefly due to the defects of the system under which they act. Their duties are considerable, their responsibilities enormous; and if they fail we must not forget that they are men, and men, too, who have often chosen a profession for which they are extremely ill fitted. These facts, however, cannot condone for neglect, for false teaching, and for a life that is lived in large part for pleasure or in indolence, and subject—as it is—to little or no control at the hands of a superior. And yet in the ranks are men of great nobility of character, whose lives are conscientiously devoted—nay, oftentimes sacrificed—to those to whom they are sent as spiritual pastors and friends.

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THE SCHOOLMASTER.

The village schoolmaster as an "institution" perhaps exerts greater influence over the lives of his pupils, the future men and women of the village, than the clergyman and the parish combined. We have met men holding this office whose characters were high, their duties onerous, their spare time devoted to the interests of the community. The schoolmaster's garden, in spite of the limited number of hours at his disposal, is often a model for his neighbours. He is usually well informed upon many subjects, and in consequence he acts as a factotum to the parson, the squire, and the great ladies of the village. While he is thus brought into contact with those living on a higher social plane, and is caressed on all necessary occasions, he is a more or less isolated individual—too humble for the rich and too superior for the poor. As a body, the schoolmasters of our English villages are fit to rank not only among our legislators, but among our heroes, for their work is quiet, real, and humble in its way—very like the gems and the roses of which the poet Gray sang.

The village sexton and vergers must not remain unnoticed. He is ubiquitous during service, which he attends with perhaps greater regularity than the incumbent himself. He frequently tolls the single bell calling the parishioners to church and announcing each death as it occurs; he digs a grave for everyone but himself, while he conducts some quiet little business which on a much smaller scale is an imitation of the store run by the chief village shopkeeper. Where the church boasts of a peal of bells it also boasts of sworn supporters in the form of ringers who practically regard themselves as part and parcel of the national institution, but who, having performed their duties on Sunday morning, frequently assume it to be unnecessary to attend the service to which they have invited their neighbours.

In many parishes a village nurse is employed by the leading Church people under a Committee of Churchwomen, whose proceedings as reported to me have been sometimes ludicrous and oftentimes unintelligible. A secretary with no minutes, a treasurer with no accounts, and an annual meeting with no report not uncommonly represents the state of affairs; while the little nurse with the aid of her cycle proceeds daily from cottage to cottage, visiting mothers and babies in the vain hope, oftentimes, at least, of inducing the former to properly nurture their offspring, and prescribing for the health and well-being of the latter. Nor are the ladies' Committee and their friends behindhand in the supply of necessaries in cases of serious illness; wine and fruit and costly foods are usually forthcoming, for there is neither lack of money

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nor will, and we may regard the nurse and her vocation as one which is of inestimable benefit to the sick and the poor, and yet it is believed that there are occasions when the Dissenter fails to receive the attention which is more or less universally paid to those who attend the parish church.

THE MINISTER.

The Dissenting minister is a personage of a desirable character in every village, although there are far too many in which he has no place—in which, indeed, there is sometimes no chapel or other Nonconformist place of worship. The minister is nearer the people than the parson; he lives on a humbler plane, and is in more direct sympathy with them, as they are more in sympathy with him, for if he is not one of themselves he very often endeavours to make himself one. I have often lamented the fact that as there is a dividing line between the Churchman and the Dissenter, so is there a dividing line, and one of a more marked character, between the clergyman and the minister. The two men are supposed to preach the same Gospel and to serve the same Master, but the one is too often regarded as an officer and the other as a humble private whose duty it is to hold his tongue and to remain quietly in the ranks in the presence of the ecclesiastical head of the parish. The two men seldom stand on the same platform, willing as may be the one to meet and work with the other. The parson may resent the intrusion, as he regards it, of the Nonconformist, and speak of his chapel as a meeting-house where Radical plots are hatched. I do not hear similar judgment on the part of the humbler individual. In a village well known to me the chapel is the one centre to which the best of the working classes are drawn, weekday and Sunday, and, if experience enables me to judge, the men who attend and support it with earnestness and regularity are the most reliable in the neighbourhood. In this parish the church is practically destitute of the working classes. The minister may not be an eloquent preacher, but he is the leader of a body who delight in lusty singing, in frequently collecting together for prayer and tea meetings, and for the enjoyment of spiritual exercises and the promotion of temperance and other more than respectable movements. More than often the weekly services are conducted by members of the congregation, a minister only attending from a distance once in two or three weeks. It is to the credit of thousands of country parishes that religious services are held, chapels built, and ministers maintained out of the pockets of the working people, and that so much is done in consequence for the betterment of men in the face of the support of the nation and of the rich which is given almost alone to the church.

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The Parish Council again is an institution of modern production. It is becoming a more or less mixed body—the small trader, the farmer, and the mechanic forming the majority of its members—whose chief duty appears to be to tread rights of way once a year and to talk on subjects about which there is no intention of doing anything. The Parish Council is not an unqualified success.

The overseers are necessary appendages, even though they leave most of their work to the rate collector, down to the valuation of property—a subject with which so very few are qualified to deal. In the experience of the writer the overseers are often too obsequious and amenable to the rich and arbitrary with those on a level with or below themselves in social position. Their work is not always of the most agreeable character, and the remark equally applies to the work of the rate collector; but they dislike the position they hold so little that they stick to it, perhaps because, like men in general, they sometimes magnify the importance of their office. The rate collector is a man who is often to be pitied; to maintain friendly relations with his neighbours who seldom pay him on his first call, he must be patient and submit to those delays which are more than common in relation to the payment of rates and taxes. As man is a rebellious animal by nature, he frequently chooses those occasions for rebellion, which he regards as the least immoral. While he pays his tradesman, whose claim he recognises as just, he skilfully and persistently endeavours to evade the tax collector under the unwarrantable belief that he is justified in over-reaching the King, the Government, or the District Council. Nor does this failing apply alone to the man of the world.

THE VILLAGE TO-DAY.

Let us next look at the reasons for the condition of the parish as we find it to-day. There is nothing homogeneous among the inhabitants. It is no longer a community of people whose interests are common, whose lives are devoted more or less to each other than to themselves: there is no common centre of activity or of social life. The parish is a mere place of residence for those who, on the one hand, are compelled to live on the spot owing to the fact that their bread and cheese is there, and, on the other hand, for those who choose to make it their home owing to their preference for the pure air of the countryside, the green fields, the trees, the garden and live stock, and, in fact, a rural existence. How can village life be made interesting? How can men and women be brought together with one common object—the brightening of daily life, the raising of each other to a higher plane, intellectual, social, and spiritual? Each man's nature needs elevating, his heart and soul

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stimulating for the achievement of better things, as well for the children who will follow him as for himself and his neighbours in general.

It is obvious that if the objects in view are what we have suggested something must be provided which will direct each man to attempt their accomplishment; but he must be taught that there is also one common interest for which all must work together, regardless of social differences, divergences in creeds, politics, or opinions in general. The acute line which divides classes and churches must be obliterated, and in its stead must be placed the indestructible fact that all men are brothers, and that all have feelings, hopes, and aspirations. Men must cultivate sympathy; the rich for those who through life are debarred from so much which they are enabled to enjoy, and the poor for those above them, for those who in so many cases are unsympathetic for the reason that they have been nurtured in a sphere and under conditions which they have been taught to believe is their special prerogative.

How many are there among those who compose our village communities who rejoice with them that rejoice, or weep with them that weep? The well to do, with time on their hands which many are daily seeking how to kill, and time so precious, could enrich others—the poor, the sick, and the aged—by impoverishing themselves, not of money or of goods, but by the exhibition of a generosity, a nobility of character, and a natural refinement, neither of which can be bought with money, and which finds its way to the heart of those who need the sympathy of the heart of another. There is a gracious and delightful charm in cultivated men and women which enables them to carry a sweet perfume into the homes of the rudest and the coarsest. Such people treating the poor as brother or sister, as fellow creatures, can gradually lead them to a higher level, and often rescue them from an abyss of misery or inspire them with fresh hopes and new courage to face the great battle before them. Pride in carriages and fine clothes, in property and demeanour, is common—it is, indeed, a phase of everyday life; but the attitude of superiority, too often accompanied by petty forms of oppression, which the privileged classes sometimes appear to think they have a right to exercise, are often bitterly resented, and become the cause of class hatred and distinction. As Dr. Dale has said: "The man who wrongs an inferior forfeits his superiority until he has acknowledged and atoned for it." In village life men are much thrown together, even though they do not meet shoulder to shoulder or do more than pass the time of day. In some cases offence is unintentionally given, in others unintentionally taken; the one may not have

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meant harm, the other should not have felt resentment. In such cases, however, it is better to dismiss all feelings of complaint, refrain from judgment and condemnation, and exercise that charity towards each other which goes so far to make life smooth.

If our village is to be a model community there must be sympathy between the parson and the Nonconformist minister, the squire and the trader, the farmer and the workman. In many ways these people have no common interests—that is, under existing conditions—but change the trend of affairs with deliberation, and the interests will change and sympathy will grow.

WHAT DO MEN LIVE FOR?

Does the squire live for self-gratification and without any intention of offending by his lordly conduct? I think this is a fair question to ask, for the man to whom much is given from him much will be required. With money, time, leisure, influence, all focussed in one direction, and that solely confined to hunting, shooting, and sport in general, life is lamentable indeed. I do not propose to ridicule sport, yet I believe it has gone too far, with the result that the younger generation of men of the wealthier classes have been largely weaned from useful work and induced to make a business of providing their own enjoyment. I take a typical case of a country home, the sons and daughters of which are constantly engaged in coaching, polo, shooting, hunting, and other forms of sport and recreation, all supplemented by a luxurious table, and by a formation of character around which the self life too freely revolves.

Does the parson devote himself to his people or his study, or is he the squire's son, occupying the living which was in the gift of his family, spending his time at garden and other parties, in the enjoyment of sport, in visits to his friends, or in those many other ways which he regards as perfectly innocent, in spite of the fact that he is the pastor of a flock and the responsible head of a parish organisation which necessarily makes demands upon his time and his ability?

Do the shopkeepers of the village devote the whole of their time to their business with the object of making a sufficiently large pile to enable them to retire from their labours at the earliest possible moment? Do they take advantage of the poor, holding as they do the monopoly of trade—whether in their charges, their weights and measures, or their calculations?

Does the farmer live for his live stock, his crops, and his whisky and cigar on market day, or does he recognise that his workmen

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and their families have claims upon him as an employer beyond those concerned with their weekly wage and the cottages they occupy? Is he an arbitrary master, exacting the utmost from his servants and refusing to recognise the severity of their path in life, consoling himself as so many do in the belief that, having known nothing better, they are quite contented with their lot?

Does the labourer cherish animosity against his employer or his superior? Does he make a point of getting as much and of doing as little in the form of labour as he can? A Socialist artisan recently suggested to the writer that working men were justified in taking this course, but there is no justification in wrong doing, for, however great the wrongs of the workers—and I refer to those of the humble classes—these wrongs are not righted by the adoption or justification of immoral or dishonourable acts. If a labourer is worthy of his hire he should prove worthy in practice.

REVOLUTION IN VILLAGE LIFE.

The reorganisation of village life means a revolution in village character: unselfishness in place of selfishness, thought and action on behalf of others; this teaching must precede any practical steps which are to be taken and should be accepted by all. The essence of the teaching of Christ is unselfishness, and if men are to meet together for mutual benefit there must be mutual concession; if a Committee is to be formed the best men for the post should be chosen as members without regard to their worldly position or their creed; and if the leaders of the two religious organisations or the squire refuse to accept such a proposition they are scarcely fit men to take part in the noble work. If it is insisted that any general movement should be specially attached to the Church, or on the other hand to the Nonconformist chapel, it is certain to fail; it will equally fail if it is the work of the squire and his purse. If, however, it is the result of agreement on the part of men of all ranks—if, indeed, the sympathy of all is enlisted—it will succeed.

A model village cannot be constructed like a house or even like a garden city, which after all is but a collection of buildings, however nicely these may be supplemented by open spaces and by institutions intended to be of use to the inhabitants. We look for the model not in the institutions which are established, but in the spirit in which they are designed and conducted. A village hall may be ever so costly and equipped with all that money can buy, but without the presence of those for whom it is intended it is a failure and the model becomes a sham. It is only when the various organisations are the result of the work of the people themselves—

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and we mean those of all classes—that they are likely to succeed. It is impossible, however, to despise the goodness of those who are willing to contribute towards the erection of institutions, for money is always needed if it does not always contribute to happiness; we cannot, in a word, do without it, and yet there are some methods and matters which are of immense value to the poorer classes, in which time, willing labour, and common sense are of greater value than money, as we shall see.

THE VILLAGE DAY.

Let us first suppose that the people are ready for the establishment of something—ready, indeed, and willing to make a commencement; how should that commencement be made? We would suggest an annual holiday which we would call "Village Day," just as the Americans term their annual festival "Independence Day." We well remember the Jubilee of our late Queen of gracious memory as amongst those who assisted in the arrangement and conduct of such a festival. For once all were united; there was a large and happy gathering in which we verily believe all differences were sunk and when all made up their minds for innocent enjoyment. The afternoon was devoted to play and sport of the simplest character; tea followed a substantial luncheon, and the writer, who had witnessed the procession in London in the morning, described it to the big company from the floor of a wagon. Such a day might be arranged yearly, and every effort made by rich and poor, healthy and sick, to contribute to its success by their presence or their good wishes. In the promotion of such a gathering a Committee should represent every class, and care should be taken to wound no man's susceptibility; rather let there be self-sacrifice on the part of those best able to contribute time or money than that friction or disagreement should occur. But every care should be exercised to avoid excesses, especially of intemperance, or even the presence on the ground of the publican's tent. While we suggest thus much we would also suggest that there should be no similar excess on the part of temperance people, whose zeal for their cause sometimes outruns their judgment—the word temperance, indeed, should be employed in its primitive sense.

THE VILLAGE INSTITUTE.

In all probability a successful "Village Day" would leave the people prepared for something further; there should be an Institution established, although it would take time and thought as well as money, which all might attend, but which should not be designed to tempt men to systematically leave their homes at night. It

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should provide a small and carefully selected library, coarse and excitable fiction being excluded; a few newspapers, including the best weekly illustrated journals, and as far as possible a collection of such objects of educational, including scientific, interest as are likely to attract; simple maps upon which the events of the world can be traced as they occur; charts relating to the structure of the human being and domestic animals as well as of the foods and drinks we consume; the composition of the soil and of plants; a few models illustrating the life history of the simpler insects, especially those responsible for the destruction of fruit, vegetables, and other foods; a microscope, to be used under the direction of a selected member; collections which in some cases might induce the younger people to take up the study of entomology in one of its branches—as the butterfly, the moth, or the beetle; collections of birds common to the district, such as, for example, are found in the Institution at Alton in Hants; specimens of wood carving—those, if possible, which are the work of boys and girls. Collections of this kind, however, would take time, and they might be increased or varied in accordance with the circumstances of the case, the means which exist, and the opportunities which are at hand.

In some parishes there are men who have studied some branch of science or mechanics, and who alone might prove a host as helpers. An arrangement should be made with some reliable individual to supply tea and coffee nightly or occasionally at minimum cost, and in many cases the Institution might prove as happy and successful a social resort as the bar parlour to the nightly visitor at the village inn. From time to time, and especially during the winter season, there should be occasional gatherings of the people—sometimes to hear a lecture, at others a concert with appropriate readings; at others, again, for conversation and for the inspection of such a variety of objects as could be obtained from those who possess something worth showing of an instructive character, and who are willing to lend them for the occasion. Education is now becoming so general that there are persons in almost every village who are more or less informed or expert in some particular subject calculated to help the members of a small community. One man has studied astronomy; he might select a particular night to describe the constellations in the heavens, and show how the Great Bear, Orion, Perseus, Cassiopeia, the Swan, the Twins, and other groups of stars may be recognised; what the stars are, how they differ from the planets, how the distances of the heavenly bodies are measured and their composition ascertained; what light is and its relation to the rainbow and the prism through which it is broken into various colours. Another person is an

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expert in sanitation and hygiene; he might explain in simple language of what air and water are composed, the influence of their purity upon health and life, the importance of drainage and light, what foods should be avoided and why, and what included on the tables of the people. Others might give simple addresses upon the soil, showing how it is enabled to produce plants, how it is exhausted of its fertility and how that fertility is replaced; how plants feed, grow, and mature, and how they supply sustenance for man and beast. Rambles in the fields in company with a practical botanist would enable many to learn how to recognise the grasses and the clovers and the wild flowers, and to learn why some grow upon one class of soil and some upon others, and why, in many cases, plants refuse to grow on soils which they do not like. The trees, the hedgerows, the ditches, the woods, all afford something to admire, and from which something may be learned, for of all men the countryman is he who should be well informed upon rural subjects. We must not, however, expect too much at first; all things come to those who wait and work; there may be failures as there have been in the past, but where there is a will among the people if one thing fails another will succeed.

A suitable Institute can be made the medium or centre from which many things may radiate. Meetings for men, meetings for women, and meetings for children could from time to time be held within its walls. Sunday afternoon meetings for men are now common throughout the country in churches of all denominations, but, while they are ostensibly of a religious character in all cases, in many the music or the singing is the attraction. A step would be gained if a Sunday afternoon meeting for men were conducted apart from creed or sect, but solely on Gospel lines, especially if the speakers were alternately Churchman and Nonconformist. A gradual growth of toleration is most desirable, but this can only be effected by complete sympathy between the heads of the two great classes, and we would earnestly beg men of all churches to remember that one of the first qualifications of a Christian is self-sacrifice and brotherly kindness. Let there be a similitude of aim between parson and minister and the people are bound to follow. There is no reason why there should not be occasional meetings for men on a weekday, when talks and discussions are essentially important; instructive but simple subjects should be the *raison d'être*, the men enjoying their coffee or their cocoa, and, if it is really found essential to good fellowship, their pipe. It is better to tolerate the practice of smoking under such conditions than to drive the smoker to the public-house. Although I am no advocate for tobacco, something is gained if tobacco and coffee supplant tobacco and beer.

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VILLAGE MEETINGS.

Again, while men and women should be encouraged to attend the occasional meetings open to all and such as have been already referred to, the now generally acknowledged mothers' meeting conducted by ladies (the wives of the parson and the squire among them) might be transferred to the Institution, but it should be varied in its character and scope. The ladies should also attend as mothers or wives, and not as mere patronesses; while the business for which all are called together should resolve itself into simple conversation upon subjects which ought to be nearest to the hearts of all—the care and feeding and rearing of infants, the communication of facts showing the enormous waste of infant life owing in part to the habits and part to the ignorance of mothers; to the employment of improper foods, as inferior or sour milk; to those questions which relate to the provision of food for the ordinary table of the working classes, its cost, value, and cooking; to the making and purchase of clothes, and of other questions of the household. In connection, too, with this meeting there might be a club for the purchase of coal and clothing. The writer has noticed for many years how serious is the call upon the poor during winter for fuel, and how by purchasing in small quantities they pay enormously in excess of value. By the aid of a club coal can be purchased on wholesale terms, and a saving effected which would prove beneficial to all. Similarly a great saving might be made in the purchase of clothing material, and here I take a leaf from the book of the average woman, who during one or two seasons of the year is apparently always on the look-out for bargains at drapers' "sales," and, if one is to believe what one hears, such bargains! What is to prevent two or three practical women visiting the Metropolis or some other large city during these sale periods, and purchasing materials which are almost given away for disposal to those who compose the women's meeting?

There is, however, another method, which appeals to the working classes, and indeed to all to whom economy and thrift are objects, which I would strongly urge upon those who are concerned in the prosperity of a village, and indeed of every other community. I refer to Co-operation. The prodigious success which has attended Co-operative trading in this country is a testimony to its value, especially when we remember that it has appealed to and been supported by what is usually termed the working-class population. A Co-operative Society is easily established, and application to headquarters will not fail to receive immediate attention, with every assistance in the initial stage of the movement. There is practically no necessary article of food or clothing which is not provided by the Wholesale Society. The buyer can depend upon the quality

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of the goods, and if, like myself, he becomes a shareholder he participates in the profits, which are of a substantial character. If a study is made of the movement and its various offspring, economical and social, it will be found that it contributes alike to the material happiness and prosperity of its members in a way which is perhaps not excelled by any other organisation.

As men and women, fathers and mothers, should, as I have suggested, be encouraged to meet together for purposes of both mutual and individual benefit, so should the younger people, a practical line being drawn as to age. Youths old enough to be interested in questions discussed for the benefit of men should be encouraged to attend with the men; those of less mature age would attend with the younger people, and the remark applies equally to girls. There are many ways of winning the confidence of children; they should be interested, not only in instructive conversation, and induced to read suitable books, but harmless amusement should be provided for their benefit. The children of the poor have very little in this direction to help or amuse them; they are almost strange to toys, they have few advantages so far as such games as cricket, tennis, croquet, baseball, and football are concerned—or, indeed, any forms of physical culture, whether out of doors or in. It should not be forgotten that they are destined to become the men and women of the future—the assistant builders, it may be, of other villages or of still more important parts of the Empire. Stories from history, facts relating to geography, to Greater Britain across the seas, and to men who have made it and the means they have employed—all might be related in an interesting and, indeed, fascinating manner by those who choose to take the trouble. The minds of the young can be expanded, and they can be shown that there is something beyond the confines of the parish in which they live, the school and its playground, and the little garden which perchance surrounds their cottage home. Children are apt to become envious of those of similar age who occupy a higher social position, but they may be equally well amused and shown that though their lot is humble there are not only means of enjoying life innocently and with benefit to themselves, but that there is a future beyond them which to a large extent lies in their own hands, and that they may attain an honourable position by the aid of patience, application, and good conduct. That still higher needs should not be neglected I need hardly say. They may be reminded from time to time not only, as I have suggested already, of the way in which Nature expands to the observant and studious, but Who is the great Author and Creator of all, and how wise it is to recognise this fact and to submit to His will in the days of their youth.

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We would suggest, too, that prizes be offered to young people who are induced to read well-selected books, and to write out tiny essays or descriptions of what they have read; or, if this is found to be inconvenient or beyond their powers, to answer questions put to them in order to test what they have learned from what they have read. Similar prizes might be offered to the older children for written papers on simple foods, on cooking, clothing, sanitation, and hygiene, these terms being simplified and brought within the reach of their understanding. In a word, the children of the parish would, not only by the aid of the school which they attend, but by such exterior help as has been suggested, be gradually equipped with knowledge for their life work, and induced to study and practise those virtues by which alone they can become good men and women.

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

It is well known that, owing to the money provided for the use of the County Councils some years ago, technical instruction has been stimulated, and that classes are held, or have been held, in almost all villages in the land for the benefit of those who choose to attend them. The County Council should be induced, through its Education Committee, to provide such classes, especially during the winter season, as are best calculated to be useful to the village people, young and adult alike. Among the subjects to be taught might be wood carving, carpentering, cooking, dressmaking, cheese and butter production, poultry management, the keeping of rabbits, pigeons, and bees for profit, the teaching of hurdle making, hedging, and thatching for the benefit of farm servants, and basket making, especially where fruit and vegetables of various kinds are grown for the wholesale market. Carpentering is especially advantageous to men who keep cows, pigs, poultry, or rabbits, enabling them, as it does, to construct their own buildings. It must have been obvious to all concerned in the welfare of the working classes in general that wherever there are plots of land, gardens, or small holdings, the structures built upon them are of the rudest description, and sometimes quite unfit for the purposes intended by the owner.

During summer the boys might be taken into a garden—and here we would suggest that a plot or allotment be secured for the purpose—and taught how to dig, to trench, to hoe, to manure, to plant seed, and to cultivate crops in general. The composition and functions of manure should be explained during the process of the work; the names of cultivated flowers, weeds, vegetables, and fruits, and the orders to which they belong supplied; and further, in such a garden a number of small plots of two to four yards square might be prepared for the cultivation of example plants, especially those

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which are of a perennial character. We were concerned a few years ago with the well-known nurseryman and rose grower, Mr. George Paul, in laying out such a school garden, of which, as members of the Committee, we were placed in charge by the Technical Education Committee of the district. Here plots of this character were provided under a scheme arranged by the writer. There were also experiment plots on which particular crops were grown by the aid of different combinations of artificial manures, so that the boys were enabled to see in the one case what certain agricultural and other plants were like, and in the other what result had been achieved by the employment of chemical manures. Among the varieties of plants suitable for these example plots in a country village are the following:—

Cultivated Plants.—Lucerne, sainfoin, broad red clover, perennial red clover, white clover, alsike, crimson clover, trefoil, bird's foot trefoil, hemp, flax, maize, spurrey, and teasle.

Grasses.—Cocksfoot, foin, timothy, perennial rye grass, Italian rye grass, smooth-stalked meadow, rough-stalked meadow, meadow fescue, tall fescue, sheep's fescue, dog's tail, and sweet vernal. Weed grasses: Couch, Yorkshire fog, soft brome, quaking grass, common bent.

Common Weeds.—Corn cockle, chickweed, rest harrow, willow herb, buttercup, daisy, red poppy, lady's smock, charlock, shepherd's purse, red campion, agrimony, bedstraw, goose grass, may weed, yarrow, coltsfoot, knapweed, groundsel, ragwort, pimpernel, plantain, clover-dodder, speedwell, yellow rattle, broom rape, self-heal, dead nettle, goose-foot, knot grass, sorrel, ramsen, meadow saffron, and horse tail. It would be much more advisable to collect these weeds in the fields, and, indeed, many others might be added to them, and to press, dry, and stick them upon sheets of paper or in suitable books with their common and scientific names attached, where they were found, and other data, showing whether annual, biennial, or perennial—these terms being explained—the soils they thrive upon named, and to what botanical orders they belong. This form of information is of the greatest possible service to those engaged in country life. We may mention that once visiting the very excellent school at Sandown, in the Isle of Wight, we found that the pupils were taken on excursions in the fields and induced to study on each occasion—under the direction of a competent instructor—a particular plant, oftentimes a weed, and its life history. In a classroom we were introduced to a whole group of students, some twenty in number, who were making drawings from one of these plants and using it as the basis of a design which each evolved for himself. Such designs are employed in Nottingham and elsewhere

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in the manufacture of lace and other materials necessary in the equipment of the home or the wardrobe. In this way two birds are killed with one stone: something tangible is learned about practical and systematic botany, and something about drawing and designing, while the student is at once brought into contact with important branches of science and of art, simple though they may be.

WOOD CARVING.

What has been referred to in the direction of gardening and matters cognate to it might also be dealt with by competent persons in relation to wood carving, in which drawing and designing are both essential even though they be accessory. Some members of the family of the writer have derived great benefit from one of these County Council wood-carving classes, as well as from private classes which have been attended with the same object, and we were gratified on one of our own birthdays by a present of a large and elaborately carved oak frame which was one of the results of this form of instruction. There are always buyers of carved oak; and not only might many a village cottage be embellished with ornaments the work of the hands of some of the occupants, but a useful addition may be made to a small income when some little skill has been acquired, if spare hours are devoted to this interesting art.

COOKING.

The importance of plain and simple cookery cannot be too urgently enforced. The table is not only supplied with greater economy, but the food is rendered more digestible and much more appetising if it is prepared by a skilled person than by one who is absolutely unskilled; and especially would we refer to the making of bread, the cooking of oatmeal, and the employment of skimmed milk in the production of simple farinaceous dishes.

THE FLOWER SHOW.

We now come to a proposal which practically applies to the men of the village, although in some cases women are implicated as assistants, or even as individual cultivators of the garden; and this remark may be pressed in part for the reason that we have recently had the advantage of inspecting a lady's garden, three-quarters of an acre in extent, from which she derives an income of some £200 a year by the cultivation of flowers and plants. As one who in past years was closely connected with annual flower shows and allotment gardens, I believe nothing is better calculated to promote industry, skill, and taste in the cottage garden and the allotment than the annual flower show. This show should be

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comprehensive—prizes being provided not only for flowers cut and in pots, but for fruit and vegetables, poultry, pigeons, rabbits, and bees; in some few cases eggs and butter might be added, for everything that stimulates production should be remembered. It would be necessary in the case of bees to make a special provision. Something should be allowed for good management of hives and their condition, but most of all for the quantity and quality of honey obtained during the season. A bee tent, which is easily and cheaply obtainable, should be provided on the show ground, and a bee master engaged to demonstrate, especially showing how harmlessly, quickly, and efficaciously bees may be handled. With regard to poultry, pigeons, and rabbits, the efforts of the Committee should be directed much less to the provision of prizes for ornamental or fancy birds than for those which are produced for the table. A hobby of the small stockkeeper should at least be an economical hobby.

It is not every parish in which allotments are obtainable, but wherever these exist prizes should be offered for the best allotment in the opinion of a competent judge. Here, again, economy is the best guide. The condition of the land, the value of the crops grown and their quality, the general character of the little holding, its neatness and smartness, should all be estimated. If gardens attached to cottages are sufficiently numerous a similar group of prizes might be offered in this direction also.

It may be pointed out by some critic that the provision of prizes on the extensive scale implied in these remarks would be entirely beyond the capacity of the inhabitants of a single village. Naturally much depends upon its extent, the number of its population, and especially upon the number of those persons of means who dwell within it; but, ordinarily speaking, a single individual, with his heart in the work and desirous of seeing it well founded and well conducted, could provide all that would be required. A flower show is usually conducted by the aid of subscriptions. In the other cases to which reference has been made the prizes, if somewhat numerous, might be of comparatively small monetary value, whether they consist of actual cash, books, or suitable articles for use in the home.

BATH AND WASH HOUSE.

In all modern improving towns conveniences are provided for the working classes—and, indeed, in some cases for all classes—which are of the highest moment owing to their influence upon cleanliness, health, and recreation. For instance, in one town we have baths and wash houses, in another baths alone; in some cases

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the baths are in the open air, in others they are covered and consequently more costly. The conveniences for laundry work in its primitive form are not considerable, certainly by no means equal to those so common on many parts of the Continent, where places are frequently provided on the banks of a river to which working women take their linen with great convenience and advantage to themselves. In many towns there are facilities which could easily be adapted to the circumstances of the case, especially where there is a river the water of which is clean and convenient. Considering the fact that this country is an island, it is extraordinary how few there are among the townspeople who are good swimmers, or who can swim at all; and yet year by year large numbers of lives are lost owing to the fact that the art of swimming has not been acquired. A swimming bath in the village is almost unknown, and yet it is a medium which would enable people of all classes not only to enjoy a bath, but to learn to swim; still further, it would prove a means of cleanliness to many who do not regard it as essential to practise the very necessary morning sponge. Obviously a village bath should be somewhat primitive; it might be constructed upon the river side or provided elsewhere in the open air, with such surroundings as would secure privacy and very necessary protection from cold winds. In some villages with which we are acquainted laundry work is becoming quite common, as it is most lucrative, in the homes of labourers. We know instances at this moment in which the labourer's wife is earning more money than himself, and in which he has been compelled to decline offers of superior wages owing to the connection which his wife has obtained. This may be regarded, therefore, as a more or less unmixed blessing, but we should add that the advance in the wages of a labourer in such cases is but small, and, therefore, he is justified in remaining at 18s. a week instead of removing elsewhere for an offer of a guinea in the face of the earnings of his wife.

As country towns increase in size and as villages are being occupied more and more extensively by moneyed people laundry work will extend, and facilities might, therefore, be provided which would enable capable women to take this work in hand. Under a properly thought out scheme a wash house, or whatever form the arrangement might take, should pay its way, a small fee being charged for its use. And here would come in the advantage of the village bank. It has not spread in this country, or even in Ireland—where it it quite a success—as it ought to have done. A small capital sum provided by the Committee of such a bank would be laid out in the construction of the necessary premises, the fees received being sufficient to pay a substantial interest in return.

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THE VILLAGE BANK.

Where the Committee of a village bank are men of substance and repute there is practically no difficulty in obtaining an advance from a bank in an adjacent town; still less if they offer in addition to their collective signatures the premises upon which the money has been spent as a security. Briefly, the village bank, which should become a recognised institution, means that a Committee subscribing or borrowing money from a town bank, say, £100 with which to commence work, lends small sums to well-known inhabitants on the joint security of themselves and their friends. The loan is usually limited in its amount, and always restricted to the object on which it is to be spent. A man desires to purchase a horse to enable him to act as carman or haulier; a sow pig for the very obvious purpose of earning him a little money; to provide tools, manure, or seeds for his garden, his holding, or his allotment; to purchase a cow to enable him to retail milk, or sheep to provide him with lambs or mutton for sale. In practice this system has succeeded beyond all possible expectation on the Continent; while in England and Ireland where banks have been established there has practically been no failure worthy of remark. The system means mutual trust, none but men of high character, well-known thrifty and industrious habits being assisted; they pay the money back by instalments or by arrangement with interest sufficient to cover the interest paid by the Committee for the use of the money and the working expenses.

In some cases egg collecting and poultry societies are indirectly connected with banks and other organisations; in this way villagers are induced to keep good poultry, being assisted in their improvement by the loan of highly-bred birds by those who own high-class flocks, and to obtain the best prices for their produce. The eggs are systematically collected, the date of laying being stamped upon them, and despatched to a regular purchaser. The demand for new-laid eggs is so considerable and the sale of foreign eggs as home produced so large that the public are only too glad to obtain what they know to be fresh and real. Similarly, by breeding good poultry and fattening them on the modern system, much higher prices are realised than is possible under the old conditions, which unhappily are still too common.

THE COTTAGE HOSPITAL AND NURSE.

Lastly—and the suggestion is not made because it is of the least importance, but rather because it could scarcely be introduced earlier in this paper—comes the question of a cottage hospital and a village nurse; but, hospital or no hospital, there should certainly

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be a nurse, and this fact has been already mentioned. There are comparatively few instances in which the people of a single village are able either to construct or to maintain a cottage hospital. The only practical plan, therefore, is for two, three, or four villages to combine and to erect a suitable building where it will be equally convenient to all. There are many such cases existing. In days gone by accidents, sudden cases of illness, and physical troubles of various kinds frequently became desperate before they were treated, owing in part to the distance from the nearest medical man or to his absence from home. This condition of affairs is mended where a hospital exists in the immediate neighbourhood; not only is there advice on the spot, but means and appliances which are often of the greatest possible importance, both as regards the comfort and the health of the patient. In country parishes land is usually cheap, and it would be well where possible to provide a sufficiently large area to surround the little building with handsome grounds, which should be planted with ornamental timber trees and flowers, all of which would prove pleasant and helpful to convalescent patients. The hospital should be invariably run upon general lines, and never allowed to remain in the hands of a few people, as is too often the case at the present time.

A good deal of ground has been covered and many suggestions have been made, and still much remains that might be discussed in a paper of this kind, but it must not be overloaded. The writer does not for a moment suggest that all the matters here referred to should or can be taken up, even by the most enthusiastic of Committees. There is, he believes, something—nay, much—to select from, and if not only in existing villages, but in those model and garden villages which are already existing or in process of establishment—as at Bournville, Port Sunlight, Newdigate in Surrey, Catshill in Worcestershire, Swaffham in Norfolk, and Steeple Bumpstead in Essex—something is attempted on the lines which have been indicated, these remarks will not have been made in vain.



Aims and Ideals of the German Workers.

BY ED. BERNSTEIN,
Member of the Reichstag.

COMPARED with the working classes of Great Britain as well as of France the workers of Germany are of much later growth. Of course, workers if understood as wage earners employed by capitalistic *entrepreneurs* or their semi-independent middlemen; for workers in the sense of agricultural labourers and handicraft journeymen have existed in Germany as long as in England, and the latter even at times in a higher state of training than their British contemporaries. But, as is well known, the wars of the Reformation, and still more the thirty years' war, wholly depopulated Germany, and threw its industrial and political evolution back for at least a century, if not more. In nearly every respect Germany was outstripped by Great Britain. Particularly this was the case with its industrial life; its workers were wholly demoralised, from a set of people once very independent—nay, combative—they became a subjugated, often slavishly docile, race. The poverty which resulted from the wars and the diversion of trade to the maritime countries had broken them, and absolutistic Governments and their bureaucracy kept them down. Some princes took care to introduce manufactures and improve in other ways the conditions of their subjects. But this worked very slowly, and was interrupted by wars with France, by the seven years' war, and, at the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century, by the Napoleonic wars. Thus it happened that at the time when in England the Chartist movement seemed to overthrow society from top to bottom and made statesmen tremble, Germany, as far as the working classes were concerned, knew very little of any movement worth mentioning. The great majority of its wage-earning population belonged, apart from agriculture, to the smaller handicraft trades. Capitalism was there, of course, but more in the shape of merchants exploiting small garret masters and home workers than of factory-owning big manufacturers.

And yet German Governments looked with very suspicious eyes on their wage-earning workers. They subjected them to all sorts of petty superintendence. The wage earner was regarded as a minor; he had to keep a booklet of his positions of employment—

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the "Arbeitsbuch"—controlled by the local authorities, in which notes on his conduct were inscribed, and when he went travelling he had to keep a travelling book ("Wanderbuch") which he had to show at all places he passed or where he found an occupation. Besides, there were many restrictions to his changing his abode, the many different States into which Germany is divided having very different laws in this respect, and it often being a very tiresome affair to leave one to go into another. Similar restrictions prevailed in the towns; toll-bars and gate-clerks were still the order of the day. To all this came one day prohibition to travel to France or Switzerland, as Socialistic and Communistic propaganda had gained greater strength in these dangerous countries. By this wise measure the rulers of the day hoped to keep their working population, who began to show indications of restlessness, in permanent submission.

In this they were greatly mistaken. The more modern commercialism spread—and it spread in spite of all restrictions rotten trade corporations had put in its way by aid of paternal Governments—a new spirit seized the wage earners. The young German artisan had at all times been a passionate traveller. To see as much of the world as possible was his great aim, and a certain amount of travelling was even prescribed by the rules or customs of the trade corporations still in existence. Many of the most charming old travelling songs bear testimony of this habit, which still keeps its hold on the mind of many of the German workers, and to which the remarkable rise of German industry is to a great extent due. Many workers found their way into the forbidden countries, and, besides a knowledge of superior kinds of production, they also brought back to their country news about the new ideas and endeavours of the labour movement of elsewhere. This particularly was the case when in 1834 the League of the Exiled (*Bund der Geächteten*) was founded in Paris, a society of German Radicals of which the famous German writer Ludwig Boerne was a leader, and whose members mostly consisted of German artisans. Out of this league sprung another society, the League of the Just (*Bund der Gerechten*), with a communistic creed taken from the communistic systems then propagated in France and elaborated to a somewhat rationalistic, though still rather crude, system of equality. It found a theoretical exponent in Wilhelm Weitling, a gifted young tailor of somewhat mysterious origin. His main work, "Guarantees of Harmony and Freedom," written and printed with the financial aid of his colleagues, was for many years the gospel of those German working men who had been or had settled in France or Switzerland. They organised sections of the League of the Just all over the Fatherland itself, where, of

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course, they had to be secret societies. Altogether the League of the Just was a revolutionary conspirative society aiming at the overthrow of the absolutistic Governments of the day, and afterwards of commercial society itself. "Our first aim must be to pull down," was the continually repeated advice of Weitling.

In the later half of the forties Karl Marx and Frederic Engels came into more intimate relations with the League, and succeeded in imbuing its members with a more scientific conception of historic evolution and the mission of the working classes. Marx, a learned philosopher of the Hegelian school, but a revolter to that school, had studied the communistic movement in France, whilst Engels, then a young clerk with great scientific leanings and Radical views, whilst employed in a factory in England (of which his father was a partner, viz., the firm of Ermen and Engels, later Ermen and Roby, in Eccles, near Manchester), had studied the social effects of the factory system and particularly the British labour movement of the time. The result of his investigations was the famous book, "Die Lage der Arbeitenden Klassen in England," published forty years afterwards in English under the title, "The Condition of the Working Classes in England."

Young Engels had seen, and, through his deep sympathy with the workers, had also felt, the class war of British wage earners and capitalists then at its highest pitch, as far as bitterness was concerned. He became the partner of Marx in working out their theory of historic materialism, which may be said to be a systematic methodological combination and continuation of the scientific elements of Hegelianism, Saint Simonism, and Owenism. According to it the evolution of society, its political, legal, and ideological institutions are in the last instance determined by the modus of the production of commodities. To the way how men procure for themselves the means and luxuries of their life—in other words, how they master nature and work up nature's raw material into means to sustain and embellish life, answer certain forms of political society, of rights of property, of the relation of the sexes and family life, of conceptions of nature itself, and consequently also of views of the rôle of gods. If the mode of production has developed to a degree that the political, &c., institutions of society no longer answer the requirements of it, i.e., of the classes created and brought forward by it, then a period of revolution—*critical periods*, as the Saint Simonists would say—sets in. Those classes which are handicapped by the inherited institutions try to get rid of them and to create new ones answering their interests, and they will in the end succeed just because the material conditions of the change are already there and grow under the influence of economical life and impulses. And as the *bourgeoisie* overthrew feudalism, so the

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modern working class, the wage earners forming the modern proletariat, will overthrow capitalism and create institutions answering to their wants and conceptions, and these will by the nature of the new mode of production—big co-operatively-worked enterprises—necessarily be of a communistic nature.

This theory of historic evolution to which their authors have given the name of materialistic conception of history, but which rather should be named economical conception of history, is still accepted by the mass of those German workers we have in mind when speaking of Germany's labour movement. It includes, as has been seen, the theory of class war. Now, both the economic interpretation of history and the doctrine of the class war can be conceived in a very different way; rigidly to the last syllable where war would mean eternal fight without *trêve* nor *mercy*, and where no agents other than economical would be recognised as of consequence, or only as laws of tendency which admit of modification by other factors of a more ideological or ethical nature. Hence you find even now, after endless discussions have taken place, much dissension amongst people who call themselves disciples of Marx in regard to the application of his philosophy in practical politics.

When Marx and Engels had worked out their theory they laid it down in different publications of which the famous "Manifesto of the Communists" is the most precise, and, at the same time, the most widely circulated. This most ingenious pamphlet, which always will maintain a foremost place in literature, was written at the end of 1847, *i.e.*, when in all advanced countries the wage earners as a class were excluded from suffrage, when the workers nowhere had either share or influence in the government of the State, in the election of Parliaments, in the administration of municipalities and other local bodies. It was the time when the middle classes ruled supreme in the Western countries of Europe, and a jejune utilitarianism combined with the doctrine of *laissez faire* was regarded in the official world at the last wisdom of social science—a time when even in England trade unions were denied recognition by employers, when wages boards and joint committees were absolutely unknown, when strikes were mostly unsuccessful and defeated workers were subjected to the degradation of signing the noted documents, when Owen's Co-operative Societies had nearly everywhere failed, and, lastly, when the Chartists in their fight for universal suffrage had twice already been beaten. It will easily be understood what the practical application of the class-war theory would look like under such circumstances. Peaceful evolution, gradual reform, would seem almost hopeless; violent revolution when the time had come would seem the only probable

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result of capitalistic evolution, the only efficient means to carry out the emancipation of the workers. And in this spirit the "Manifesto of the Communists" was written. The Communists "openly declare that their aims can only be carried out by the violent overthrow of every order of society heretofore extant." Thus the Manifesto in its concluding sentence.

Somewhat, but not much, modified this spirit reappeared in the great work Marx published twenty years later, in the first volume of "*Das Kapital, Kritik der politischen Oekonomie*." True, in the preface the possibility of an evolutionary transition is alluded to, and in the text of the book Marx lays stress upon the beneficent effect of the Ten Hours Bill in regard to the regeneration of the British cotton worker. But in the final chapters of the book the catastrophic trend of the capitalistic evolution is again—and more elaborately—shown up. And no wonder; since the process of concentration still went on as lustily in agriculture as in industry, since trade unions were still no great force, Co-operation on the new lines in its infancy and greatly in danger of degenerating into only another form of narrow shopkeeperism, whilst the second English Reform Bill was yet only in the making. As the "Manifesto of the Communists" "*Das Kapital*" points out at its conclusion, a catastrophic overthrow. We read there—

Whilst the number of capitalistic magnates who usurp and monopolise all the advantages of this [industrial] evolution decreases continuously, the mass of misery, of oppression, of enslavement, of degradation, increases, and together with it increases also the revolt of the working class—continuously swelling, and being disciplined, united, and organised through the mechanism of capitalistic production itself. Concentration of the means of production and the co-operative nature of work reach a point where they become incompatible with their capitalistic integument. This will be bursted. The toll-bell of capitalistic private property will ring. The expropriators will be expropriated.

"*Das Kapital*" has been called the bible of the German workers, and in a restricted sense rightly so. To the great mass of the workers it is surely too abstract reading, and its language often above their understanding. But the intellectual leaders of the German workers have drawn their inspiration mainly from the Manifesto and later on from "*Das Kapital*." Especially as regards the economic tendencies of modern society and the inevitable catastrophic end of capitalistic production Marx's sentences were and are regarded by most German Socialists as absolutely conclusive. Were they not based upon minute analysis of the industrial evolution of England, the model country of capitalistic production? England shows Continental countries their future. No doubt of this was possible. The "Manifesto of the Communists" and other publications of Marx and Engels of the same period had

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already had the effect of smothering all competition, as far as Socialism was concerned, in the German labour movement of the time. The years of reaction after 1848, however, made them fall into oblivion. The revival of Socialism in the early sixties seemed at first to take place under other, though not absolutely deviating, influences. But "*Das Kapital*" re-established the authority of Karl Marx, and put it on a firmer basis than it ever had before. And whatever might be said in criticism of this book, and although it shall not be denied that it and other writings of Marx are responsible for a certain coolness of sentiment to be met with in German Socialists, in two respects it has undoubtedly had a most beneficial influence on the German labour movement: it gave it a fixity of purpose and a feeling of invincibility quite equal to those of the most powerful religions of the world, and it taught its adherents to always keep an observant eye on economical phenomena and to appreciate their bearing on the further evolution of social life and the most effective working points of Socialistic action.

II.

The "Manifesto of the Communists" was written for the League of the Communists, as the League of the Just was rebaptised when it had accepted Marx's theory. Shortly afterwards the revolution of 1848 broke out, and most of the members of the league returned to Germany to push the movement according to the aims and the conceptions laid down in the Manifesto. But soon two rather different applications of the theory are to be observed. On the one hand we see Marx, Engels, and others associate with the most advanced section of German middle-class Radicals to secure political democracy in Germany. This in accordance with the sentence of the Manifesto: "In Germany the Communistic party, as soon as the *bourgeoisie* acts revolutionary, fights in common with the *bourgeoisie* against absolute monarchism, feudal landed property, and the petty *bourgeoisie*." They edited, at Cologne, a great revolutionary democratic daily, the *Neue Rheinische Zeitung*; they became leading members of a federation of democratic clubs in the Rhenish province, and gave themselves exclusively to political action. Quite different one of their disciples, a gifted young compositor with the name of Stephan Born, who had gone to Berlin, then a city of somewhat over 400,000 inhabitants, with some comparatively big machine works in its northern precincts, and much textile industry in its eastern part. Born also co-operated politically with the advanced wing of the middle classes, but, besides this, he became one of the leaders of a real Independent Labour League then in formation, and of a less combative nature than the federation of the Rhenish democrats.

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It is interesting to occupy ourselves a little with the Berlin movement in 1848. In the capital of Prussia, even in the days of the Revolution, the confused spirit of the shopkeeper threatened to get the uppermost in public assemblies, as, on the whole, small trade prevailed, and the journeymen of these were prone to take the reactionary views of their masters in regard to economics. The more intelligent members of the wage-earning class noticed this soon, and a Central Committee of workers was formed to organise the workers according to trades and put forward the particular claims of the wage-earning class as distinct from other classes. It was a genuine labour movement, of which Born and a not less gifted young goldsmith named Bisky were the most prominent leaders, as much opposed to the scheming quack reformers and street demagogues that tried to lull the people with the song of the good intentions of the King as to the hot-headed extremists who tried to repeat 1793 where the conditions that created 1793 were absent. It got from the 1st of June, 1848, an organ in the paper *Das Volk*, edited by Born. It impresses you curiously if you compare this small sheet, which, in quarto size, came out only thrice a week, with the brilliant *Neue Rheinische Zeitung*. None of the racy, peppered, sometimes violent and sometimes deep-digging, articles of the former, but rather tempered expositions of the questions of the day and the position of the workers in regard to them. Living in the political centre of Prussia, Born and his friends seem to have seen more clearly than Marx how strong the Government still was, and they seem at the same time to have been more deeply impressed with the unpreparedness of the great mass of the German workers than the authors of the Manifesto. But, notwithstanding all this, the language of the *Volk* was very manly, and no concessions were made to the powers that were.

In the summer of 1848 the Berlin Central Committee of Workers convoked a General Congress of German workers to Berlin, and the outcome of this Congress, which sat from August 23rd to September 3rd, was the foundation of a national federation of labour called *Die Arbeiterverbruederung* (Fraternal Union of the Workers), which was to combine friendly benefit, trade unionism, and Co-operative enterprises with political action on independent labour lines. It seems to be a law of evolution that in the juvenile days of every great movement the most far-reaching theories of its scope are spun, and the most comprehensive schemes of its practical application are worked out. The workers were, according to the statute of the *Arbeiterverbruederung*, to organise in local and district federations composed of trade societies, and these federations were to collect and administer funds in such a way that the treasurers

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of the federations should collect the wages of the workers from their masters, deduct a percentage—seven in the average—for the purposes of the fund, and hand the respective worker the rest. The funds had to provide several kinds of benefit, act as a loan society, and organise Co-operative enterprises. Needless to say that they never came into existence. Sections of the *Arbeiterverbrüderung* were founded in several places, and a spirited agitation for its propagation was entertained with apparent success, but nowhere did the local federations gain enough strength to even try the organisation of the fund in the way planned at first. What they did, however, was to found primitive Co-operative Societies in the shape of purchase societies (*Einkaufsvereine*), particularly societies for the purchase of bread, flour, and cigars. In Berlin they also purchased shirts and other garments for workers, and linen and wool to be worked up in Co-operative workshops into shirts and stockings, or sold to members for individual requirements. The workshops also came to naught, but the sale of raw materials to members went on, and the same was the case in other places with raw materials for small traders, as cloth for tailors and leather for bootmakers.

The *Arbeiterverbrüderung* did not exist long. When in May and June, 1849, revolutionary upheavals against the growing reaction of Governments had been crushed, its sections were everywhere suppressed as such, and soon afterwards its organ, called the *Verbrüderung*, was also prohibited. Born, who had been one of its editors, and had taken a leading part in the revolutionary upheaval of Dresden (May 9th, 1849), had to fly to Switzerland as an exile. Bisky, who had remained as an organiser in Berlin, was, together with many others, some months later, expelled from there and emigrated to the United States. The number of workers expelled from Berlin in 1849 and 1850 was enormous. At one time over a thousand workers were expelled in one week only. The victorious reaction did not tolerate the slightest form of political or trade union organisation of the workers. Even a friendly sick insurance society founded in Berlin by members of the *Arbeiterverbrüderung*, and so well conducted that its membership in a few years had grown to about 20,000, was one day regarded as dangerous to the State, and also dissolved by force. Only the small Co-operative concerns were not directly suppressed. In Berlin, Leipzig, &c., they were, however, ruined by the expulsion and the imprisonment of their Committees; but in some smaller places they subsisted, and out of this remainder, torn from its originating labour movement, grew the Co-operative movement connected with the well-known name of Schulze Delitzsch. The latter, indeed, commenced his career as an adviser and organiser of Co-operation in a small town near

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Leipzig, where he helped to conduct a Co-operative purchase and loan society of small independent artisans. From a working-class point of view the Schulze Delitzsch movement was, in its beginning, a degenerate offshoot of the *Arbeiterverbrüderung*—by the way, quite in accordance with a state of industry where capitalistic factories are the exception, whilst the mass of the wage-earners are occupied by small masters and in time become small masters themselves. And the spirit or conception of this state of things remained in the Schulze Delitzsch movement even at a time when social conditions had already greatly changed, and the difference of master and journeyman was no more a difference mainly of age, but a real and sharp class distinction. But in the early publications of Schulze Delitzsch you find still much of the phraseology and reasoning of the *Arbeiterverbrüderung*, and Co-operative production conceived in the old sense of production for the benefit of the workers as producers—the ideal of the advanced workers of the time—remained also in the system of Schulze Delitzsch the *crowning ideal*.

III.

Reaction passed away in Germany by the end of the fifties. A national movement instigated by the Italian War for national independence and unity, and Liberal or Democratic in politics, swept it away. The middle classes would not stand any longer the rule of the State bureaucracy and the incompetence of the German Federation as an entity. They wanted a powerful united Germany, embracing if possible the whole German nation, with an Imperial Parliament and a strong Central Executive. The *Zollverein*, a Customs union embracing all the German States except the German provinces of Austria, existed, but otherwise the luxury of the nearly absolute sovereignty of the small States neutralising each step of the Federal Council of the day had become an unbearable hindrance to the industrial life of the nation. A society for propagating national unity under the leadership of Prussia was founded, under the name *Der Nationalverein*, and entertained a very active agitation; but it met with strong opposition in the southern States, and also in the rest of Germany, Austria being more popular there than Prussia. There were also people who wanted to do away with all the separate States in favour of one undivided Germany, if possible, with a Republican constitution. But they were few and far between, and were regarded as a kind of utopian extremists.

The *Nationalverein* was a middle-class society; its contributions were such as would deter workers from joining the society. But the national movement itself comprised all classes, the workers

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being in their great majority satisfied with the rôle of the retainers of the middle-class political leaders of the day. They were now mostly organised in educational societies, a sort of Mechanics' Institutes, where, however, Liberal politics were introduced and Liberal economics on Manchesterian lines were taught. And no one was more popular with these workers than Schulze Delitzsch, who had stood by their class through the years of reaction. Only here and there you would find workers who maintained a critical spirit against his teachings. A small body of such working-men critics lived at Leipzig. This town, the centre of the German book trade, and a place where at that period nearly the whole commercial world of Germany still met annually at its famous fair, was in many respects ahead of Berlin. Saxony altogether was industrially the superior of Prussia; it did not know much of that squirarchy by which the Prussian throne was surrounded. In Leipzig, then, the memory of the *Arbeiterverbrüderung* was more vivid than in Berlin, where, in 1849 and 1850, as has been mentioned, all active members of that society had been expelled. A democratic section split off from the Liberal Bildungsverein, calling itself *Verein Vorwaerts*, and members of this union went to Berlin at Christmas, 1862, to confer on the question of creating a new national labour movement with a man who had come forward as a much more Radical politician than Herr Schulze Delitzsch, and had also in lectures shown quite a different standpoint in regard to social questions. The name of this man was Ferdinand Lassalle. His entrance into the arena of labour politics marks a new departure of the movement, "in some respects similarly related to Marxism proper as the movement of Stephan Born and the *Arbeiterverbrüderung*."

Lassalle had for long years been a political friend of Karl Marx, and was in some degree also his disciple. But only in some degree. Like Marx, he was educated as a philosopher in the Hegelian school of thought, but much more than Marx he stuck to Hegelian methods of reasoning, and his way of thinking was in a high degree that of a legist.

In the spring of 1862 he had given a most beautiful lecture before a working men's club in the north of Berlin on the connection of the modern era with the *idea* of the working class—notice the Hegelian expression—and in this lecture, published under the title of "*Das Arbeiter Programm*," he had proclaimed universal suffrage as a means of (in time) bringing the State under the control of the wage-earning class; which class, he showed, would imbue the State with quite a new spirit answering to the social conditions of the workers. Although the word Socialism was carefully avoided, it was (for the initiated) quite clear that the Socialistic spirit was

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meant, particularly as the idea of *laissez faire* was combated as degrading the State to the rôle of a mere night watchman. It will also easily be seen that the deduction of this famous lecture is to a great extent based upon the materialistic conception of history, and the latter theory we find not less impressively exemplified in a lecture ("On Constitutions") which Lassalle delivered a few days afterwards before a Berlin Liberal Club, and which, in the opinion of the writer, is the best of all his lectures. The writer may also be permitted to say that in his opinion so much as is undeniably true in the materialistic conception of history is laid down in these two most lucid papers. The "*Arbeiter Programm*," particularly, is a fine combination of realism and idealism. In directing the workers to get the State under the influence of universal suffrage, and thereby permeate it with their "idea," Lassalle gave the movement, together with a new practical aim, a new ideal, explained by him in most beautiful language.

Lassalle had tried in vain to push the Liberal Progressists, then in conflict with the Prussian Government, to more energetic action in the shape of a Parliamentary strike. The controversy on this proposal led to his final break with even the advanced section of that party, but this and the State prosecution instigated against him for his lecture "*Das Arbeiter Programm*" drew the attention of such workers upon him—and their number was growing—that were also dissatisfied with the policy of the Liberal Progressists. Conferences took place, and the result was the famous "Open letter to the Leipzig Workers' Committee," which led to the foundation of a new Labour party—the Lassallean General German Workers' Society—with two demands on its programme: firstly, universal suffrage, then understood as manhood suffrage only, and secondly, State aid for Co-operative producing societies.

To Lassalle the demand of universal suffrage was the most important of the two claims, as has been seen already in the short analysis of the "*Arbeiter Programm*." He calls it there the "indispensable, most fundamental demand of the workers." Yet, although the Progressists were partly opposed to it and partly rather lukewarm advocates of it, the debate turned for a long time much more on the second demand: State-financed Co-operative productive societies. It was no more a new demand than that of universal suffrage. The Chartists in England had put it forward on several occasions. It can still be found in a programme worked out by Bronterre O'Brien in 1850, when a last endeavour was made to revive Chartism. In 1848 it appears in Germany here and there on workers' programmes, and the *Arbeiterverbrüderung* at some time had circulated a petition asking for a grant of ten million thalers for Co-operative productive societies, always understood as

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societies of workers producing for profit on their own behalf. And as such they are also conceived and explained by Lassalle, only that he wanted them organised on a larger scale. In a speech made at Frankfurt-on-the-Main in a meeting which was arranged for a disputation between him and Schulze Delitzsch on their respective theories—to which the latter, however, did not condescend to go—Lassalle stated that a State credit of 100 million thalers would be “more than sufficient” for the first to set his scheme to work, but he objected strongly to try it on a small scale. To succeed, he said, such things must from the beginning be carried out on a large scale, a proviso by which he believed to push aside all possible objections; but which, in fact, involved him still in a good many contradictions, which, however, we can here pass over.

It need not here be enlarged upon the unsocialistic nature of the cry, “Production for the Producers.” Everybody knows, and so did Lassalle, that Socialism means production for the community. But he did not care to put forward this already as an aim, because he saw quite well that the economic structure of society was by far not developed enough for it. He preferred to take up the old popular cry, but this did not improve matters at all, at least as far as the theorist was concerned, for the workers looked upon the question from quite another standpoint. The same may be said of the way in which he put forward and explained the “iron law of wages,” according to which the worker under free competition would always be reduced to the strict necessary means of living. Had his opponents limited themselves to the statement that the notions of what are the necessities of life change in the course of time, and that the question of distribution is, in a high degree, a question of organisation, they would have been in the right. But instead of this they made themselves the apologists of capitalistic society just as it was, and tried to glorify individual competition and to dispute away the statistics of misery Lassalle had referred to. And not content to dispute the soundness of State intervention in the distinct case of Co-operative Societies, they rejected State intervention in economics altogether, and gave themselves away also in not refuting the scheme of productive Co-operation to the exclusive benefit of the respective producers as wrong from the beginning, but, on the contrary, pretending to be friends of it themselves.

In short, where Lassalle erred he erred with his time; even six years afterwards we see a Congress of the International Working Men's Association advise the workers in a resolution drafted by Karl Marx to rather found Co-operative producing societies than Co-operative purchasing and distributing ones. This with a motivation which showed that Karl Marx, who had gone much

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deeper into the analysis of economics than Lassalle did, also looked upon the producing societies as superior from a Socialist standpoint to the distributing societies. Of all the producing societies founded in Germany by adherents of the International none has, however, survived. But also the time of the distributing societies had not yet come in Germany. Surely capitalism had made great headway during the ten years of political reaction. The middle classes had used the enforced quietness of political life to addict themselves all the more to the useful occupation of making money. The coal mines and the iron furnaces of the country were multiplied, in the Rhenish district the coal production trebled, and the production of iron increased to five times as much as before; the net of railways was greatly improved, the machine trade enlarged, and a great number of other factories were built, so that the number of factory workers had more than doubled since 1848. But, compared with the number of workers occupied in the smaller trades, they were still a small minority. In the grand total the small workshop as well as the small selling shop prevailed, and where this is the case the development of the distributing societies is greatly handicapped by the many personal and social relations that at this stage of economic evolution still exist between the small shopkeeper and the wage earner, and because a large percentage of the latter are and remain unmarried so long as they are not small masters themselves. This also accounts for the fact that the Universal Workers' Society founded by Lassalle did not make much headway during the year he was still alive and the first few years after his death. Had Lassalle and his followers had to rely upon his economical programme only, the movement would never have come to much. Petty as the proposals and solutions of Schulze Delitzsch were, they were or seemed at least something palpable, and for a certain time it, indeed, appeared that a Labour Federation founded by adherents of Schulze, and composed mainly of workers' educational societies, were to represent a stronger force in numbers than the Lassallean organisations, and this the more as, after Lassalle's death, internal dissensions broke out in the ranks of his adherents, with all the ugly and repulsive features of such sectional disputes and rivalry.

Altogether, it was not so much the economical precept of Lassalle that made the movement grow as his political teaching in its social bearing. The agitation for universal suffrage was not at that time in Germany a mere repetition of the Chartists' fight for manhood suffrage. The latter had the whole middle classes that ruled the country against itself. But in Germany it was quite apparent that the Government of Prussia, the principal German State, was considering the advisability of a democratic suffrage for

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the purpose of breaking the opposition of the middle classes. And, in order to compete with Prussia, the Austrian Government and those States that stood by Austria also juggled with the idea of a democratic suffrage for a Federal German Parliament. Thus it came to pass that, after the German War of 1866, Bismarck introduced to the Parliament—the Reichstag—of the then-founded North German Federation the universal suffrage for all male citizens over twenty-five years of age. As Germany was at that time still mainly an agricultural country with a numerous small peasantry, and in Prussia an enslaved class of agricultural labourers, the experiment was for the time being not at all perilous for the semi-feudal and militaristic Government. Nay, it fortified their position at first, and thus seemed to justify the opposition of the middle-class Liberals against the battle-cry raised by Lassalle. Even in the towns and industrial centres the first elections under the new suffrage proved very disappointing for the Socialists. To the constituting Reichstag not one member of the Lassallean section was elected, and when, six months later on, the first Reichstag of the constituted Federation was to be elected, two seats were, indeed, won for Lassallean candidates, but these also only at the second ballot. Besides the Lassallean candidates two other Socialists were then elected, one of whom was a friend and an adherent of Karl Marx and the other on the way to become one. The name of the first was Wilhelm Liebknecht, the name of the second August Bebel.

IV.

The political evolution of August Bebel in the sixties of the last century is typical for the mental evolution of many German workers. By trade a turner, who after his years of journeymanship had settled down as a—very—small master, he was when Lassalle started his movement one of its strongest opponents. A gifted speaker, with an extremely quick perception, and an indefatigable worker, he was then the pride of the Liberal Progressists and became the elected chairman of the Workers' Federation that stuck to Schulze Delitzsch. But partly the half-heartedness of the Progressists in politics, partly the insight into the appearing insufficiency of Schulze's precepts, and in a high degree also the influence of Liebknecht, whom the Prussian Government in 1865 had expelled from Prussia, and who then had settled down in Leipzig, had brought him gradually nearer to Socialism. He and Liebknecht were at first elected as members of a new founded party that called itself the Saxon Populist Party (*Saechsische Volkspartei*), but which for all intents and purposes was already a Social Democratic party, and which two years afterwards, together with a number of seceders of the Lassallean organisation

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and co-religionists of other parts of Germany, melted at a Congress at Eisenach, in Thuringia, into the Social Democratic Party, according to the *Eisenach Programm*, for several years to come the rival of the Lassallean organisation, a rivalry which at certain times led to very bitter feud in the respective organs, and to blows in public meetings. This although or perhaps just because the differences in theory and practice were more imaginary than real.

The *Eisenach Programm* was practically an adaptation of the programme of the International Working Men's Association enlarged by a number of democratic demands. So far, it was more comprehensive than the Lassallean programme, and in several points the demands bore testimony of a conception superior to that manifested by the Lassalleans in regard to the questions concerned. Thus, *e.g.*, whilst the Lassalleans at that time proclaimed the suppression of female labour altogether, the *Eisenach Programm* only asks to restrict the same. But the demand of the full produce of labour for each worker can also be found in it, and at the end you can also find the Lassallean demand of State credit for Co-operative productive societies, modified, true, by the prefix "free," and the addition, "with democratic guarantees," in order to provide against attempts of reactionary Governments. But this was no real distinction from the Lassallean proposal, since Lassalle had always pointed out that he expected the realisation of his proposition only by the "state of the democratic suffrage." The only difference between the two parties in regard to Co-operation was that the Lassalleans practically discouraged self-help Co-operation whilst the Eisenach party admitted it, even though only as an inferior means in the struggle of the workers for their emancipation. But for the reasons given before the Co-operative productive societies founded by members of the Eisenach party proved dismal failures, and their distributing societies fared at first little better.

It was not Co-operation that secured the movement a lasting hold on the workers, but a form of economic action that by Lassalle was rejected altogether, namely, Trade Unionism.

V.

Partly induced by his conception of the law of wages and partly by what he had seen of the practical results of English trade unions of his time, Lassalle was a strong opponent of introducing trade unionism into Germany. He qualified the efforts of trade unions as "hopeless attempts of the commodity labour to play human being," and declared it as his endeavour "to protect the German workers from the misery of British trade unionism." But as a matter of fact nothing benefited the Lassallean movement more

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than the outburst of trade unionism in the later years of the sixties and the beginning of the seventies of the century. Man proposes, history disposes.

The history of trade unionism in Germany resembles in many respects the history of British trade unionism, particularly during the years of its childhood. We find the same speculations about its possibilities, and the same attempts to pass over so and so many phases of its evolution at once. The laws against workers' combinations had one day become as obsolete in Germany as forty years previously in England. An agitation for their abolition set in, in which the Socialists took a prominent part; for, whatever was thought of the utility of trade unions, the laws meant a restriction of the workers' movements and had to be fought. It was the time when in England the new type of trade unions—the new model, as it is called by S. and B. Webb—had been developed, the non-combative union combining trade protection of their members with an elaborate system of friendly benefits of all kinds, and when arbitration and conciliation boards (as proposed by Sir Rupert Kettle and J. A. Mundella) had taken root. The Liberal Progressists in Prussia and elsewhere felt bound to intervene in favour of the abolition of the combination laws; but they did it at first in a half-hearted way, showing clearly that they were not the proper advocates of the special interests of the workers. Most of them took sides in the same way as in his day Henry Place had done: the restrictions must fall, but trade unions are of no use, and the breaking of the labour contract must be legally penalised. This already gave the Lassalleian agitators an advantage over them, and when suddenly, even before the laws were formally abolished, strikes occurred in one trade after the other, the Liberals were always loth to take distinct sides, whilst the Lassalleans, by the mere nature of things, were bound to stand with all their energy by the side of the strikers. Thus, whether they wanted it or not and whatever their theoretical prejudices might be, they found themselves involved in a beginning trade union movement, and learned by experience that it could not but benefit their propaganda.

But the Liberals also saw this. One of their adherents, Dr. Max Hirsch, who had travelled to England, had there come across trade unionism just at a time when a closer alliance between a number of trade union leaders and the Liberal party had taken place. He returned to Germany an enthusiast of the *new model*, praised it up to the skies in Liberal papers, then much more circulated amongst the workers than the Socialist sheets, and set to work organising trade societies having as their inscription: *Harmony between workers and employers*. The Lassalleian leaders, and

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particularly their chairman, J. B. v. Schweitzer, quickly perceived that there was danger in store, and now also resolved to take the matter systematically in hand. A General Congress of the German workers was convoked for this purpose on the eve of the abolition of the combination laws, and assembled at the end of September, 1868, in Berlin. Already at its first meeting violent quarrels ensued between the Socialist majority and the Liberal minority, Dr. Max Hirsch and others were forcibly expelled, and shortly afterwards organised a counter conference, where an elaborate scheme of federated trade unions of the new model type was accepted. In each trade the workers were to organise local trade societies, that on the one hand should federate locally as a sort of trades council and on the other hand into district and national trade unions, which should again nationally federate into a General Council of Trade Societies, embracing the whole movement. The demarcation of the trades was also discussed beforehand, so that all splitting up might be avoided. In the rules of the societies it was laid down that strikes should only be resorted to as the very last resource, when every other means of settlement had failed, and the friendly benefit was settled on the principle of low contributions and high benefits. It was quite different at the original Congress now exclusively composed of Socialists, nearly all of whom were Lassalleans. There also a model statute was accepted, but on strong centralistic principles. The whole trade union movement should consist of a comparative small number of strongly centralised trade corporations comprising in each case different trades amongst which some affinity existed, so that, for example, miners, furnace workers, &c., weavers, spinners and dyers, &c., should be organised in two big centralised unions under the leadership of presidents and with local sections, and at the head of the whole movement was to be a board of three presidents and a Central Council at its side, whose members, however, were distributed all over the country. Apart from a modest travelling pay and some funeral or death aids, there was no friendly benefit at all, trade protection being the almost exclusive purpose of the corporations. The contributions were settled at one silbergroschen, *i.e.*, about five farthings a week.

Thus there were two absolutely different types of trade unions, both with very objectionable features. The Max Hirsch societies, as we may call them, appealed to a rather narrow individualistic egotism. The fighting spirit so necessary just for a young movement was nearly banished from the societies. What was suited for strong and powerful unions already recognised by the employers in consequence of their fighting possibilities was prescribed for young, inexperienced, and uninfluential unions, and, from an insurance point of view, bankruptcy was so evidently

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in store for the benefit funds that even friends of the movement like Dr. Brentano could not conceal their blame. The Lassalleian trade corporations, on the other hand, were much too artificial creations to promise a long existence in the projected form. With their low contributions the unions were dependent upon the financial help of each other in the event of strikes, but as strikes do not occur on command, but rather according to the conditions of trade, and then simultaneously in several trades, the help would very often turn out insufficient, particularly as long as the unions only represented a limited percentage of the workers of their respective trades, and consequently would be compelled to also give to outsiders strike pay. A third type of unions was organised under the auspices of Bebel and Liebknecht. These avoided the main faults of both the Hirsch and the Lassalleian unions. There was less bureaucracy and rule from above, a freer scope was given to natural evolution as determined by economic conditions. But, like the Lassalleian unions, they took a somewhat too high flight with low contributions at the outset; aspiring at international federation they called themselves international unions, and between aim and performance there was not seldom a piteous discrepancy. Like the Lassalleian unions, they were in principle fighting unions, with few trade benefits. If the Max Hirsch unions resembled in their constitution the more conservative aristocratic British trade unions but lacking their strength, the Lassalleian and the "International" unions had much in common with the old rebellious unions of the revolutionary era of British trade unionism, and with the "New Unionism" of 1889-90. In particular, the fate of the Lassalleian trade corporations reminds curiously of the career of the Grand National Consolidated Union of 1834. No sooner were the corporations constituted when quite a fever of strikes commenced, and with the enthusiasm of the movement and the unpreparedness of the employers some very important strikes were won at first. But defeats or long protracted strikes ensued, and in some trades a tendency to free themselves from the fetters of exaggerated centralisation made itself felt, whilst, on the other hand, orthodox Lassalleianism took exception even against this form of unionism, which was so constituted that it surrendered the chief authority by necessity into the hands of the leader of the political movement. Herr von Schweitzer, the Chairman of the political Lassalleian Union, was at the same time the President of the Union of Trade Corporations. But before the latter existed one year Schweitzer suddenly dissolved it by a kind of a *coup d'état*, and founded a still more centralised organisation, the Universal German Workers' Protective Society, of which the apparent tendency was to do away with the trade corporations, and to melt the whole trade

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movement into one big organisation acting as an insurance fund for strike pay, for travelling money, and such kinds of benefits. It led to much confusion, some trades revolted, and the new protective society never gained much strength. A few years later we find in the Lassallean movement many local unions founded directly as "strike societies" of one or another trade, and in Berlin a local federation of such strike societies. At first they were very successful, as it was the time after the war with France, and a period of great commercial prosperity had set in. But already then again the need for national federation on trade union lines was felt, and this inclination was fortified when the era of prosperity after 1873 was followed by a long period of trade depression. Also in the Lassallean movement national trade unions were organised which differed from the trade unions of the Bebel-Liebkecht party only in words or very subordinate points.

VI.

Without going further into the details of the origin of the German Socialist and trade union movement, we may resume the history of their early years by remarking that the trade union movement reflected much more the influence of the political movement and participated much more in its ups and downs than was the case in England. This also holds good for the years now ensuing. Firstly came now the era of legal prosecution under the auspices of the Berlin State Attorney, Herr Tessenlof, which led to the fusion of the two hostile political parties into the Socialist Working Men's party of Germany in 1875 at Gotha, with a new programme, the *Gothaer Programm*, where the Lassallean phraseology—iron law of wages, State-aided co-operated productive societies—is still upheld, but with new modifying prefixes and additions. The changeling *National Protective Society* is dissolved, and the unions of both Socialistic camps amalgamate. Three years afterwards two attempts of crazy individuals on the old Kaiser are made use of by Bismarck to put Socialism and the labour movement of Socialistic proclivities under exceptional laws. The political Socialist organisations are suppressed, the Socialist press prohibited, the strongholds of Socialism put under the state of siege, where any person inconvenient to the authorities can be expelled. And although the law speaks only of the prohibition of societies, &c., aiming at the *overthrow of the State*, the Socialist trade unions share the fate of the political party. They are dissolved by force and their funds confiscated. For some years no independent trade union either local or national is allowed. Afterwards a little free scope is again given to trade combination with a view of separating the workers from the political Socialist party. The workers may

form local strike societies, and may even form national trade unions, but only under the strict supervision of the police, and any discussion of political questions, sometimes even of such subjects as the legal shortening of the hours of labour, is immediately followed by dissolution.

It is known how well the German Socialist party stood this era of wilful prosecution. How they founded an organ abroad and knew how to smuggle it into the Fatherland in numbers growing week by week with the precision of a regular legal publication; how they knew how to hold meetings behind the backs of the police; to surprise whole towns by sudden wholesale distributions of leaflets; and how after the first terror was overcome they paraded at each general election in greater numbers before the surprised eyes of the middle-class community, until, when all the methods of applying the law had failed, William II., who had just come to the throne, allowed it to collapse at the end of its twelfth year, with the intention of showing the world that he knew how to deal with the Socialists better. At the last general election before the law was created the Socialist vote amounted to 437,158; at the last election under the law it was 1,427,298, a balance for Socialism of round a million of votes.

The balance for the Government was about 1,300 papers and pamphlets prohibited, 332 organisations of workers suppressed, 893 persons (mostly married) expelled from towns in siege as "dangerous," and 1,500 persons put into prison—partly hard labour and partly penal servitude—for altogether little less than *a thousand years*!

Thirteen years afterwards the Socialist vote had increased to three millions. The Government system of William II. knew to make it grow, in almost the same number of years as had the Bismarckian law lasted, by nearly two-thirds more. The greatest part of this latter increase was achieved during the last five years, with the return of the Imperial policy to high Protectionism, which found the Socialist party its strongest opponent.

But much as the opposition against increased corn, &c., duties has added to the strength of Social Democracy, the main reasons of its extraordinary growth are deeper. The most important of them is the industrial evolution Germany has undergone with increasing rapidity from decade to decade. In 1848 it was over three-fourths agricultural, to-day less than the third part of its population belongs to agriculture. Industry proper, as apart from commerce and traffic, represents now the greatest section of the population: in 1895 it was 39·12 per cent., and it is now near to 50 per cent. of the whole. In industry, commerce, and traffic capitalistic concentration has made tremendous headway.

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Not that small and medium enterprises have disappeared altogether—they have not even lost in the absolute numbers of their workers, &c., occupied. But they remain stationary; the whole increase of the population almost become employés of big enterprises. From 1882 to 1895 the number of the latter increased from 1,613,000 to 3,044,000, *i.e.*, by over 88 per cent., whilst the whole population increased only by 14·48 per cent. Since then their proportionate growth has been still greater, as could be shown by statistics of the particular trades. But examples in detail may be omitted here, since the whole census of 1905 will shortly be out.

Now, this evolution was accomplished in a good many trades with greater rapidity and recklessness than the same processes had gone on in England, and could not but create a strong anti-capitalistic feeling. Kept down artificially by the Governments, deprived for many years of the possibility of organising effective trade unions for the protection of their interests against the employers, but taught, on the other hand, the advantages of socialisation by the State insurance laws, the workers were (in a way) directly educated for Socialism.

To this came that, as we have seen, in an early time of Social Democratic propaganda already universal suffrage was introduced in Germany whilst Parliamentary Government was withheld from the nation. The German elector, be it at imperial elections or at elections to the State Diets, is not called upon to elect the party which is to form the Government. The formation of the Government is done without him; the State Ministers are the officials of the monarch, not the nominees of Parliament. As a matter of fact the elector only elects a kind of attorney to represent his interests at or rather against the Government. There is no need for him to compromise his interests in order not to handicap the formation of a Reform or a Conservative Ministry, as the case may be, and it will easily be perceived how this would make for an independent Labour party in Parliament in proportion to the growth of the industrial population and the evolution of production to a phase where the horoscope for the worker is: "Once a wage earner always a wage earner." And with its own representation in Parliament and the uniform direction of the action in Parliament given, the movement would win by this a unity and consistency which elsewhere has often in vain been striven for.

True, the German Social Democratic movement has, as we have seen, also had its splits. But they ended as soon as each section had its representation in Parliament. For then it was at once seen that their action there could not be but in all points the same. The modern worker is by the nature of his social position a

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Democrat; he must be opposed to class privileges, to a system of taxation that burdens the necessities of the masses and saves the income of the wealthy, created in the main by the work or the co-operation of the community as a whole. He will be opposed to wasting the wealth of the nation and the blood of the people for militarism and adventurous wars, and he will be driven to demand liberal provision for the poor and the incapacitated, for the education of the children of the masses, for the elimination of class distinctions in the schools. Separate sections of the workers may in this or that question be inclined to stick to inherited institutions or anti-progressive customs, but it is in the nature of Parliamentary action to push aside or minimise trade sectionalism in favour of the community of interests of the whole class. In England class consciousness is often confounded with sectional trade feeling; but not as members of such or such trade do workers form a class, but by their social position as wage earners in common with wage earners in all other trades. Inculcated by political education in such a way, class consciousness is an elevated feeling which in the long run necessarily makes against any reactionary prejudice or whim that may exist with particular sections of the workers.

One year after the lapse of the anti-Socialistic law the German Social Democratic party at its Congress, held at Erfurt, gave itself a new programme, since then known under the name of the *Erfurter Programm*. Here the last vestiges of the specific Lassalleian proposals have disappeared. Apart from the list of Democratic demands and a programme of labour legislation—both much more elaborated and much more in accordance with scientific investigations of the trend of modern social evolution and the wants of the working classes—the programme is pure and undiluted Marxism. Modern economical evolution is described in such a way that a final great catastrophe would seem inevitable. Small enterprises disappear of necessity; the means of production become the monopoly of a relatively small number of capitalists and big landowners, who monopolise all the advantages of the increasing productiveness of labour, whilst for the wage earners and the drowning middle strata of society (peasants, petty *bourgeois*, &c.), evolution means increasing growth of insecurity of existence, of misery, oppression, servitude, exploitation; the number of proletarians increases continuously, the army of unemployed workmen grows huger and huger, class war between the *bourgeoisie* and the proletariat becomes more embittered from day to day, and the abyss between the possessors and the non-possessors is widened through commercial crises continuously growing in extension and destructiveness. Only the change of capitalistic private property of the means of production—land, mines and pits,

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raw materials, tools, machines, means of transport—into social property, and the change of the production for sale into socialistic production by the community, and for the use of the community, can make production on the large scale and the growing productivity of social labour from a source of misery and oppression of the hitherto exploited classes to a source of the highest welfare and universal harmonious perfection. It would mean the liberation not of the proletariat only but of the whole human race that suffers from the present state of things. But it can only be the work of the wage-earning class, because all other classes are adherents of private property and of the conservation of the foundations of the present society. Social Democracy, however, as the party of the wage earners, does not fight for new class privileges, but for the abolition of class domination and the existence of classes altogether. It fights for equal rights and equal duties of all, without distinction of sex or race, against every kind of exploitation or oppression, by whatsoever class, party, sex, or race it may be directed. This struggle, embracing all countries of capitalistic production, is the same in all of them, and consequently the conditions of the workers of the different countries become more and more interdependent; the emancipation of the workers is then a task in which the workers of all civilised countries participate equally, and the German Social Democratic party declares itself as *one and the same* with the class conscious workers of all countries.

Thus the deed of confession now adopted by the party embracing the great mass of the German workers. Here you have its aims and ideals; here you have the clue to its attitude in regard to all questions of home and foreign policy.

Readers of this "Annual" will perhaps not be unaware that the Erfurt Programme has in recent years met with criticism from within the German Social Democratic party. This criticism is not directed against the aims and ideals of the party. It only refers to some of the presuppositions so far as the course and the effects of modern capitalistic evolution is described. According to it, the Marxists' predictions have not in every respect been verified. The capitalist class does not decrease, but rather increases; the peasantry does not disappear; and small commercial enterprises, although they change their nature and lose in independence and social relevance, remain or reappear in considerable numbers at the side of the huge capitalistic enterprises. Commercial crises don't show a growth in extension and destruction compared with what they formerly had been; and, great as misery and servitude still is, it is also not increasing in the way the programme says. In consequence of this, a different way of realising the Socialistic ideal is possible and even probable.

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It must be left to the reader to consider these objections and gauge their cogency by looking the facts in the face themselves. Be it only said that if the crises do not increase this does not at once speak in favour of the present order of things. The avoidance or reduction of crises can be achieved by means which hamper social progress more than the suppressed evil would have done. And if the number of unemployed does not increase progressively this is also no proof of the soundness of social conditions. Quite apart from the growing number of retainers of the possessing classes in the shape of servants, it must also be investigated how large a percentage of producers is employed for the growing luxuries of the capitalist class and thus diverted from work that would embellish the life of the masses in proportion to the increased productivity of labour.

In some respects the Socialist party by its own practical action in and outside Parliament works for a different mode of evolution than is described in the programme. If the taxation it demands would be carried out, if the factory laws it fights for, if other measures of reform it advocates would be accepted and put into practice, society would obtain a somewhat different face. Socialisation would make no less progress, but without so many convulsions. And the same holds good of the extra Parliamentary work of the Social Democratic workers' movement, to which we have in the first instance to reckon municipal action, trade unionism, and Co-operation.

Of municipal action not much need here be said. In growing numbers German Socialists have been elected members of local bodies, so that there are at present about 1,500 Socialist town, &c., councillors, who fight inside these bodies for Socialistic municipal policy. They are greatly hampered in Prussia and elsewhere by a class system of election which secures the possessing classes a ready majority in the councils, but by restless energetic action and agitation they nevertheless exert a palpable influence upon these councils in the direction of progressive measures.

Trade unionism had practically to begin again when almost all the then existing unions had been suppressed in the first years of the anti-Socialistic law. They had to find their way with much circumspection. One unconsidered word could lead to legal fines, dissolution, and confiscation of the funds. Federalised, as well as centralised, unions met with the greatest difficulties. In Prussia, Saxony, and other German States the law forbade societies that deal with public affairs to have intercourse with other societies, and whilst this interdict has never been applied to the political organisations of the Government parties, it would, with the utmost rigidity, be put in motion where Socialist or semi-Socialist

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organisations were concerned. It has already been mentioned that the courts even declared the discussion of a law a political occupation; and for many years it was thought wiser by a comparatively large section of German trade unionists to renounce all federalisation by statute, and thus secure a greater freedom of action, than condemn themselves to restriction by organising in federations. Some of the advantages of federalisation they sought to achieve by a system of confidential men, viz., a kind of agents elected in free public meetings of the workers of the respective trades. These men were beforehand chosen in informal conferences of leading members of the unions; then a public meeting of the trade was convened, someone known by everybody proposed the chosen man as a fit "confidential man," whereupon he was, naturally, always elected by the meeting. The "confidential men" were free to co-operate with "confidential men" in other towns or other trades, the authorities having nothing in hand to make the unions responsible for them. It was, however, only an expediency of restricted value, and, after the fall of the anti-Socialist law, at a Congress of German "free" trade unions—"free" here signifying independent from middle-class or clerical connections—it was by a great majority resolved to form centralised unions again. A minority decided to remain local unions, in order to be free to declare themselves openly Social Democratic unions and propagate Social Democratic principles and adherence to the Social Democratic party in all their meetings. A number of such local unions still exist, but they have been almost absolutely pushed aside by the centralised free unions, and have recently shown a tendency of going adrift towards anarchism.

Another problem of organisation to be solved was the question whether it was more practical to have unions for each specialised trade (*Fachvereine*) or unions comprising whole branches of industry (*Industrie-verbaende*). It is a question not to be solved, absolutely, in a dogmatic way, since conditions differ greatly in the various trades, but in the majority of cases it has finally been settled in favour of comprehensive *Industrie-verbaende*, so that the picture of German trade unionism offers much less separatism, much less squandering by an endless number of small particularistic societies than that of British trade unionism. Of centralised free unions but sixty-four exist, but they embrace the whole of the trades of the country conjunctively. What unions exist besides these are, like the Max Hirsch unions, the Christian unions, some few independent unions, and the local unions separated from them because they represent different conceptions in regard to trade union action and organisation. But there is almost no division based on mere questions of funds. The local societies represent in the

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German trade union world of to-day an insignificant minority in numbers; of a grand total of nearly two million organised workers they count only 20,000. The Max Hirsch unions to the number of nineteen have proved their lack of recruiting power by the fact that even when their Socialist rivals were suppressed they made no progress worth mentioning at all. Very slowly they have come up to a total of about 120,000; only quite recently some of them have shown a little more fighting spirit. The twenty-six Christian and kindred unions are of more recent birth. They are partly organised by Catholics, partly by Protestants, and represent a total of 300,000 members, of which, however, about 100,000 railway employes belong to unions that are practically mere benefit societies; others, like the Christian Miners' Union, the Christian Textile Workers' Union, &c., show more real trade unionism. But they are in numbers and efficiency far behind the free centralised unions of the respective industries.

The sixty-four free centralised unions represent the big majority of the German trade union world. In 1905 they had 1,344,803 members. They are undeniably the best organised, most efficient trade unions of Germany, and can in several cases well bear comparison with the respective British unions; in some they are even ahead of them, representing a higher percentage of the workers of their trade than the latter. Step by step they have increased their contributions and correspondingly also their different trade benefits. Although not formally connected with the Social Democratic party, they are as a matter of fact Social Democratic organisations. All their leaders are Social Democrats, a number of whom are Social Democratic members of Parliament, and a great percentage of their organised members, sometimes more than 30 per cent., are also organised members of the Social Democratic party. They are led in the spirit of that party, and it is consequently of particular interest to examine their performances somewhat closer.

What would in this respect first strike the British investigator is the big item in their budgets under the head of "organ of the society." Almost every society has a good sized weekly paper belonging to it, in which leaders and paragraphs on important social and industrial questions are regular features. Altogether the centralised unions spent in 1905 no less than £70,000 sterling for their organs. Founded as fighting unions, expenses for strikes form the biggest item in their accounts; in 1905 they spent nearly £460,000 under this head, several times more than was the corresponding expense of the British unions in the same year. This is, of course, in a high degree due to the fact that there are fewer agencies at work in Germany for settling disputes peaceably than in

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England, that German employers very often still refuse to recognise the unions as the legitimate agencies of the workers. Yet from year to year the unions succeed in forcing recognition; the Metal Workers' Federation, which now has about 320,000 members, could in 1903 and 1904 in more cases settle wages, &c., movements without strikes than they had to carry out with the aid of strikes. Anyhow, the figures given before testify of the fighting capacity of the unions, and it may here be added that, whilst in their juvenile days the unions were dependent upon the support of other unions for strike pay, it is now the adopted rule to conduct strikes with their own funds; in 1904 over 95 per cent. of strike pay came from the funds of the respective societies themselves. How much the position of trade unionism in Germany still differs from that attained in England is also illustrated by an item of 486,765 marks as expenditure in support of victimised members we find in the account of 1905, and in 1904 it was even 536,209 marks. More than £26,000 for victimised members! Which year in the history of British trade unionism can show an equal amount? And to this expenditure are to be added over £10,000 spent in 1904 and over £15,000 spent in 1905 for legal protection of members. Yet it is not only for fighting purposes that the centralised unions spend their funds. True, of the so-called friendly benefit there is comparatively little, the German insurance laws providing other agencies in this respect. The German laws would also not permit of the lumping of trade union funds, sick, invalid, &c., funds. However, 38 of the 64 centralised trade unions now give their members additional sick pay, and the sum spent for it amounted in 1905 to £96,000, and about £45,000 were spent for similar benefits. Besides, gradually one centralised union after the other has introduced out-of-work pay. Of such unions there are now 41, and although in 1905 trade was very brisk yet they paid in that year no less than £99,500, or 1,991,927 marks, to unemployed members!

The introduction of these benefits did not take place without great and, sometimes, very protracted debates. A good many people feared that by widening their scope in this direction the trade unions would lose their character as organs of the class war and become institutions that make for conservatism. But in time the adherents of this opinion were beaten, and, although there is always danger in measuring cause and effect, it cannot be gainsaid that the unequalled growth of the centralised unions—from a total of 259,000 in 1895 they had in 1905, *i.e.*, after ten years, reached 1,344,803—is, to a great extent, due to the introduction of aids to unemployed and other benefits. That they have not lost in fighting capacity has been shown above; they have enormously

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won in solidity, and just in consequence of it in power of resistance. They have by the language of facts refuted the predictions of otherwise very clear-sighted men. In 1893 a man of such extraordinary perspicacity and knowledge as August Bebel expressed the fear that with the concentration of industry already accomplished few possibilities would remain for trade unions. Happily, he has lived to see the contradiction of his fears. Just the contrary, German trade unions have acquired the power to settle tariff agreements with the combined employers. Also this development has been looked upon, and is still looked upon by many, as a very dangerous venture from the point of view of the class war, and it would be folly to deny that there is always some danger in store where binding agreements are concluded for a longer period. But the advantages of such agreements, from a workers' point of view, are too apparent to be, in the long run, treated as things worth neglecting, and it is only a rather primitive or crude form of class war that might be prejudiced by such agreements. They have come to stay; one union after the other has resolved to accept them, nay, to fight for them, and the number of tariff agreements made is now on the increase in almost all trades.

Will trade unions, then, as some fear, change the character of the German labour movement in the direction of an alienation from the Socialist ideal? The question is much discussed in Germany, and is surely worth close study. The German trade union movement is, as we have seen, largely a child of the Social Democratic movement, and owes it a great deal. Take the annual reports or the handbooks of German trade unions to hand, and compare them with the annuals of the British trade unions, and you will at once notice the superiority of the former in regard to methodical treatment of matters and width of conception. There is no national bragging in stating this; German Socialists and German trade unionists know how much they owe to their British predecessors, and in how many respects British trade unions are still ahead of the German ones. But the figures given show that the former are in danger of being overtaken, and far-sighted leaders of British trade unions voluntarily admit that the elders have something to learn from the younger. And it can easily be proved that whatever superiority the German trade unionists can show they owe to their Socialist education.

But will in Germany, too, the pupil teach the preceptor? Time alone can tell. By its own evolution German Social Democracy has learned to appreciate institutions differently from how it judged them in its infancy. This is quite apparent in its position towards Parliamentary action and, amongst other questions, also in the attitude in regard to the question of Co-operation.

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It was already mentioned how the International Working Men's Association advised the workers, at the proposal of Karl Marx, to found producing Co-operative societies instead of distributing or purchasing ones, and again in the same spirit a Congress of the German Social Democratic party in 1891 accepted a resolution rejecting Co-operative distributing societies. Only eight years afterwards, however, a Congress of the same Social Democratic party had to correct this resolution by acknowledging that those Co-operative societies had a certain though limited value for the working classes. Co-operative distributing societies led by Socialists, and mainly composed of Socialists, had lived and grown unobservedly, and from their example, as well as from reports of the growth and achievements of British Co-operative societies, could be seen what a powerful weapon the workers, once they have socially become of age through the evolution of production, can have in their customership if they know how to organise their purchases. To-day Germany has also a growing Co-operative movement, of which it can be said that it forms a wing of the great Socialist movement, although it observes strict political neutrality. Its leaders are avowed Socialists; it has freed the greater section of the German Co-operative distributing societies from the domination of middle-class Co-operation, and many ventures in their administration bear testimony of a true Socialist spirit. The latest report at hand gives the number of these societies organised in the *Central Verband Deutscher Konsumvereine* (Central Federation of German Co-operative Consumers' Societies) as 745, with 646,175 members; 710 of these gave reports from which is seen that they had sales to the amount of about £8,000,000 and over £1,500,000 profit. They produced commodities to the value of £700,000 in their own factories and workshops, and employed on the whole 6,475 persons for distribution and 1,144 for production.

These are small figures if compared with the statistics of the British Co-operative movement, but it must not be forgotten that they do not represent the whole of the German Co-operative movement, and that the distributing movement altogether is comparatively young, and finds its path beset with much more legal difficulties than that of Co-operation in Great Britain.

In theory and in practice the Co-operative productive society, once an ideal of a great section of the German working classes, is to-day as such as dead as the renowned door nail. May not, we repeat, other ideals go the same way? He only can tremble at the thought who regards ideals as something immovable, far above the law of change which rules things human. But he who thinks that ideals as distinguished from utopias must always be in correspondence with the real life of the nations and its possibilities

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will not be disheartened because of that. He will be the less discouraged if he sees how in all modern countries the great democracy of the hitherto disinherited grows in social importance, in organising power, and in intellectual capacity. He will take heart and enthusiasm for concurrence in the movement if he sees how this great class, through the nature of its conditions, is driven to support progress in every domain of social life; that it must by necessity fight for social equality; that it must by necessity, when acting as a class, fight for unimpaired mastery of nature in order to save human life and human labour; that it must by necessity oppose the present cruel and contradictory penal system; that it must by the nature of its own conditions, as a class, strive for the most perfect organisation of production, distribution, and administration, which, by making social work compulsory to all, will procure humanity an amount of liberty and welfare for all its members never known before. Whatever form or shape they may assume, according to the state of evolution reached, these are, at the bottom, the aims and ideals of the workers of all civilised countries, and consequently also the aims and ideals of the German workers.

It is to-day the fashion in some quarters to detract the achievements of Social Democracy in Germany by pointing out the little direct influence it exerts on the Governments in States and Empire. Undeniably there is an incongruity between the strength of the organisation of the party and its elective power on the one hand and its possibilities to enforce political reform and to hinder disfranchisements and similar political reaction on the other, and the day may be near when the party may have to reconsider its tactics in order to remove this disproportion. But the question is not an easy one. The party has against itself the strongest military Government in the world ready to squelch any attempt of revolt in the streets with unrelenting violence, and to hazardously risk such a venture would mean to compromise important interests of the workers without any visible prospects of success in such enterprise under present circumstances. The party pays here the penalty of its unparalleled electoral successes. We have seen that to some extent they were due to the absence of real Parliamentary life in Germany, but the absence of the Parliamentary system is also responsible for the weakness of German middle-class Liberalism and the stagnation of political reform. How this distorted state of things will end is at present not to be foreseen, but end it must one day one way or the other, to be sure. In the meantime Social Democracy goes on educating and organising, and if—Southern Germany excepted—its influence

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in regard to enforcing franchise reforms is at present practically *nil*, its indirect influence in compelling Governments to introduce industrial reforms is none the less great and increases steadily. It is also a strong force in foreign politics. If the party cannot prevent meddling speeches and diplomatic plotting it does, however, act as an impediment to warlike ventures. There is no doubt about that. German rulers know the mind of the workers in the great towns and industrial centres of the country; they know quite well to what an extent the army is permeated with Socialists now where the towns furnish a greater number of recruits than the rural population, and they hesitate consequently as much to expose themselves and the country to the hazards of a war and its possible after effects at home as do the Socialists in regard to forcing a violent conflict. The German workman is no coward. See the list of prosecutions endured in Germany; it tells a different tale. His spirit of self-sacrifice and unbending resistance is something admirable; it is the despair of his opponents and the enthusing encouragement of his friends. In no country spend the workers as a class a greater proportion of their income for their social emancipation than in Germany; in no country do you find a wider circulated Socialist press; in no country a stronger and more effective Socialist organisation. True, the German worker is not what you would call a revolutionist. He has not the revolutionary initiative of the French or the Italian worker. It must be admitted that he has the defects of his virtues. But he has his virtues. They are the tenacity of purpose, the readiness for self-sacrifice, and the capacity for organisation. If he is faithful to them he will none the less conquer all his opponents.



Domestic Economy of the British Home.

BY MARGARET MC.MILLAN.

"If there breathe on earth a slave,
Are ye truly free and brave?"

"HOME" is a British word, and the thing itself is very British. Other nations have a homeland, dear as ours. Across the Channel, only half a day's journey from London, there is an adored Fatherland. Its daughters can hardly exist in strange countries, and its sons leave it with sorrow. But for them home is a *land*, not a hearthstone. It is of the sky, the orchard, the forest, the boulevard, not the hearth, that the Frenchman sings in his lyrics and dreams in his exile. The French dwelling-house is small; it has no nursery even if its owner is rich. It is not meant to be lived in too much. In the cities tables are spread in the open, and life is carried on for two-thirds of the year under a canopy of waving boughs and radiant sky. The outdoor world is furnished, one might almost say. Statues and fountains greet you at every turn in the city, and the open spaces are arranged almost like reception-rooms! It is not caprice, but climate, that determines all this. The beautiful sky of France being what it is, home is a landscape—a well-known smile on field and river, a familiar hill, or park, or valley dear as the eyes of a lovely mother.

But in Britain, dear as our country is to us, home is something more than country. Our climate has focussed our love of home in a dwelling-place—a hearthstone. There are not many days in the year when many of us dine out of doors! and though our sky is wondrous lovely at times, and may even spread a stainless blue canopy over the emerald fields, yet very often it is clouded; over our moorlands the grey mist creeps. Rain and wind and surge, and near us ever the wild, unending song of the deep—the song of the waves ceaselessly gnawing at the lip of the land, indenting and forcing their way farther and farther up the openings of the rugged coast. This is the land and sky that formed British men and women, and planted in them the love not only of country, but of their dwelling-place—their home.

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What did they want to do in that shelter—a poor one it was—which the people built, say, 2,000 years ago? Well, they seem to have had some ideas about what a home should be even then! They did not want simply to huddle together for shelter and warmth. On the contrary, every British family felt that they must “keep themselves to themselves,” as their descendants say to-day, for some other reason.

The overcrowding of modern days must be sorely against the grain of British folk, for, thousands of years ago, their fathers set their faces against it. Each family lived by itself apart, near the spring or the wood that had taken the master's fancy. Even in villages the houses were detached, because the people loved independence and wanted to have free air. Alone each family listened to the wild blast in the forest, to the rain pelting on the roof and falling through in heavy drops that gathered on the mud floors. Miserable homes, but British homes already; homes of men who loved independence. They had a need not only for independence, but also for *being alone*—a need for withdrawal from the world. At first they might, of course, withdraw only to sleep, and to dream of the “boiling wave red with blood.” But that wild dream shifted into something else—something sombre, but exalted, that filled the stormy sky and the wild forest.

There are certain parts of Britain, notably the Hebrides and the extreme North of Scotland, where the shifting mists and the barren hills that clothe themselves in beauty have had it, as we may say, all their own way with the people; they have made of them dreamers of dreams. Climate, however, is not the whole of environment. The nature of the soil determines much. In the Islands and far North the soil is very barren, but in Southern Scotland, and in nearly the whole of England, the soil had, as it were, some very striking proposals to make to the natives. What it said to them virtually was this: “Sit still, or work languidly, and you will starve; rise, and work hard, and you will be the richest nation in the world.” That is to say, Nature, offering rich rewards to diligence and sharp punishment to idlers, put a premium on energy, and turned the wild valour of the North men from war into work, without suffering it to become tempered and enfeebled thereby (as usually happens when the routine of toil is accepted). In reading their history one is almost tempted to think that the Britons of long ago took civilisation much as a war-horse might take the prairie—that is to say, with a sense of freedom, and treating every barrier and stream as an enemy. They made roads, drained fields, cut down forests, planted and sowed, and got rid of all noxious animals in a kind of Berserker rage. They also ate a

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great deal and drank like giants. The chroniclers say that they had "a great and coarse appetite," that they roasted oxen for public feasts, and made ale and mead flow like water. All this hard labour did not exhaust them in the least. They had to work off their surplus energy in heavy muscular games, and also in fighting. Robin Hood and his two foes, taking hands and singing round an oak tree after having battered each other for a whole summer's day, gives us some hint of the kind of muscular exuberance that was once common to a whole nation. But the strange thing to know is that all this muscular activity did not express the whole man and his nature, nor even any considerable part of him. It belonged to the outer life; it was only the shell of the nut. The inner quality of the race expressed itself later. In order to know what the inner, or soul life is, one must try to get a glimpse of these rude people *at home*.

Every mind that can be called *human* works with the material offered to it by the outer world, changes it, idealises it, and *creates* and recreates through its impulse. The Latin race, for example, extract from what they see the material for their resplendent art—in Italy yesterday the schools of painting, in France to-day the schools of sculpture—and this art is *really* popularised and is the possession of all. Life in the crucible of these clear minds becomes harmonious, intelligible, idealised in forms, and language itself becomes a bright weapon, a shining lever that lifts things into a new and luminous atmosphere. The Britons did not find *their* gods, as did the Greeks, on the hillsides and groves, and they did not seek their inspiration in the smiling fields and laughing waters. They loved the spring, of course; they loved beauty, but they often forgot it.* A special interest attaches to them because, for all their Berserker rage in work, they did not spend the finer forces of their mind at all on outside things. They did not put their soul into pictures. The mind of this Northern race was flung back on itself. It was forced back, and its finer creative energy was spent in an inner struggle. Sitting in his isolated dwelling, the Briton's mind grappled with the deepest questions of life and destiny, brooded on these for ages long, and it strives still to fathom these in some measure, to be faithful to what it knows about them. This is the dream of Britain, to discover what is true about the universe, and what is man's true relation to its creating energy. It kindled, it lightened even the brutish sleep of our remote ancestors, and it has not passed away.

* They not only forgot natural beauty, but they became, at times, afraid of it. Thus as Puritans they stripped off all ornaments, hid away everything that adorns. They saw a dark shadow even on the brightness of summer.

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So from the first the British home was a kind of temple. It may seem extravagant to say this—a fantastic thing to say—and yet it is the simple truth. The Presbyterians and Puritans, formally installing the father as priest in his own dwelling, and urging on him the duty of erecting a family altar, were really only defining something that had been coming into existence for centuries. Robert Burns' cottar, praying on Saturday night in his poor home, is the son of a long race of men whose huts were temples.

It would be easy at this point to turn aside and look at this race of dreamers at various stages and dates of their history. The dreamer does not change or shift about, though he advances. Once he was a poor, skin-clad savage perched on a hill, and listening through dark night watches to the howling of the wolves below. Then a lonely dweller in the plains—the yelping of the hungry pack silenced, and in the forest another Voice, a mysterious Voice, filling the night; a floating presence, majestic and awful, hovering over the dark hills. The savage heart was full of thoughts of an infinite dark beyond. Then, as the tide of feeling deepens with the generations, all the wonder and yearning of the past is in the good yeoman, furrier, baker, who has learned to read and who turns over the pages of the Bible. In his home, by the light of a smoky candle, he reads it, ponders it, and the deep tide of feeling within seems to rise now and pour its waters into all the consciousness. Perhaps some day someone will show us our fathers and teach us what we owe to them. Perhaps we shall learn how their imagination, which rejected so many forms and did not readily find an instrument even in language,* became something great, sombre, and yet dazzling, something whose reserves have not yet been drawn upon. Here, however, we have to think of the life of the women of an earlier age, of the housewife and mother, who is in every age the economist of the home.

We know all too little that is authentic about her, seeing how close we stand to her in blood and heritage. Still, we do know something of how her life resembled ours, and, what is more, we know something of how it differed from it. To begin with, her sphere was home—beyond home she had no theatre at all. The civic rights she had in early days were allowed to lapse, mainly, so far as we can see, because she had no time or care to insist on anything that drew her beyond the home boundaries. On the other hand, her work had a wide range. It represented in germ many of the great industries of the modern world. "The British

* The early Saxon hymns were short—a mere series of ejaculations—and it was only late in history that the great writers appeared, and that Shakespeare, bursting every bond, found the open sea, as it were, of expression.

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women' arrange to have everything done at home," said a Frenchwoman the other day. That is no longer so true of us as it once was, but even of the women of the 17th and 18th centuries it was almost literally true. For their food was home grown as well as home made. They spun, and wove, and dyed the wool for blankets and clothing, and their shopping was really a kind of general stocktaking at the beginning of winter. Woman's range of experience was wide, after all, though her horizon was narrow. She did not go far. But she saw, and learned, and experienced many things.

But who can doubt but that for her, as well as for her husband, the external things of life were but the husk of existence? The reality for her, as for him, was the inner life—the travail and labour of a mind which gave its highest effort to the things that have to do with the unseen. She no more than her husband could embody her dream in material things, in forms; she must realise it in spiritual things. We know very well how she tried to do this. It was she who found it possible to bid a glad good-bye to adored children on their way to martyrdom—who suffered death herself calmly and joyfully, and was not afraid of any torture. It is only the finer forces of life that can give this courage. These were reserved, unspent, and rather strengthened than otherwise in rude work-a-day labour, and they were not poured out in the arts that adorn life. Let us remember once more that for the woman, at least, the home, being a temple, was also the one workshop and theatre of activity. She had to labour in this sacred place, and knew no other. Here, where her husband prayed, she had to work, and to deal with husband, family, and neighbours. The outer life was simple, the inner strong. The same vivid inner life that made the British man claim human rights, beard angry kings and courtiers, and finally throw off the shackles of political and religious bondage, made the woman devote herself to the home, and complete for herself the ideal of it as a sacred place.

Her husband respected her ideal. Probably he even imposed it, consciously and unconsciously, upon her. We shall see how the forces of the new epoch flung themselves upon it as upon a frail boat in the billows of mid-ocean, battered it, rent it, and tore rudely the sail through which thousands of men and women had believed they saw, floating as behind a veil, the glorious Vision of the Ideal.

When the stranger arrives in Britain to-day he not only sees homes, but perfected homes. He sees stately manors and castles embowered in immemorial trees, charming country houses, cosy villas, also working-class homes where the dream of the race is not wiped out.

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The people who live in these homes are privileged, for they have managed to keep what seems to be essential for the free development of what is best in our race. For the moment, however, let us turn away from their doors, and look at the people who are left—some of them literally out in the cold altogether, some in mere lodgings, and some in dwellings which, while more than lodgings, are yet in no very real sense *homes*.

How is it that so many came to have no homes? Is it by some great failing or black instinct? On the contrary, this homelessness which appears to be, and is, a tragic thing, was the fruit—not the *whole* fruit, but a mere handful of it—of the ripening powers of this strange people. We have seen that, without being industrious, like the French, in a patient, absorbed way, the British went about the heavy labour of the world with untamed vigour; they carried great energy into work-a-day life, and yet their imagination was always free, always busy with the unseen! What happened could not have been predicted, but it can be understood more or less as we look back upon it! They became the great mechanics of the world. They made machines, “phantoms of the inorganic life”—rivals of living beings. They found out how to wed motor powers to steel and iron. In short, whereas *other* nations copied life in forms, *they* copied it *in forces*.

There was an element of terror in their creations which was never present even in the most realistic art. Machinery once fairly started began to act, as it were, almost on its own responsibility and to change the very face of the world. And, to begin with, it began to knock at the door of homes, and has continued to knock there in a very threatening manner ever since. The hand worker had to compete with the machine, but the hand worker could not long compete with machinery. Yet the machinery needed hands. The little child was sent into the mill. The mother followed him. In the North families were massed into armies, and over many homes, even though new comforts were added to them, a new and sinister change began to creep. It was a change affecting not only the economy of the homes, but the deepest instincts of the people who lived in them. In Lancashire 62 per cent. of the women go out to work; in Manchester and Birmingham, 63 per cent. In 1901 there were 867,259 women in the textile trade industry alone. The death rate among infants is very high in cities where women work for wages. It remains high all over the country, even though the death rate among adults is falling. Women are out in the open world of industry—and have come out not, in the majority of cases, from choice (as some would have us suppose), but of necessity.

There are many working women, however, who still cling to home. It seems as if the forces of modern industrial life cannot

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let these rest, but must pursue them even into the dim alleys and dark places where they dwell. To begin with, among these we find the worst paid workers of all! The Sweated Industries Exhibition gave the world a glimpse of them, toiling for long hours at their tasks, matchbox makers, shirt and trouser makers, parasol makers, tennis ball and brush makers, &c.—a great army. These are the “sweated” workers. In some countries they are not so badly off. In France you can see home work carried on in sunny and airy rooms, and the home worker is, in many cases, almost as well off as a housekeeper. Not so in Scotland nor in England. Here she is fighting a closer fight with the unseen enemy outside. Fawcett was anxious to guard her doorstep. He said, “This is a home, after all. It is its owner’s castle in spite of all.” She was to be allowed to perish there. But she may be interrupted—helped to live. The mud hovel under the oak tree where the primitive Briton sat was a castle. No one disturbed him without hearing of it. But the room of the home worker in the 20th century is not a castle; it is a fort. The occupant is fighting with something outside, *and she is not prevailing.**

Higher up the scale there are thousands of families who try to strike root in vain. They would be glad to settle in a home. But how can this be? One of the most remarkable things about labour to-day is its shifting character. There are trades which seem to sweep hither and thither like waves of the sea, and whole communities shift in their wake and almost lead nomadic lives. This element of impermanency is new in Britain, but it has come at last! Sometimes, indeed, one lights on a little community even in cities which still refuses to march with the times—as, for example, is the case of a certain district of London where the people live by making baskets and brushes, although the osier beds have years since departed, and the material has to be got from outside London. These people suffer for their conservatism. They are all very poor, and are remarkable for having *no* good times. They are, indeed (to quote Dr. Thomas, of London, who inspected their children and found them to be in a very poor way), always in the same hopeless state, without hope of any “revivals” of trade at all. The majority of people do not subside

* In a Report of the Home Industries of Women in 1906, Miss Clementina Black writes: “The conditions (among home workers) are much the same as ten years ago. Where a difference in wages appears the tendency is downward. The wages of matchbox makers touch the lowest level; but those of cardboard boxmakers are now approaching the same, and several other industries are but slightly better paid. . . . The conditions are, if anything, growing worse, and under payment is rather spreading than decreasing.”

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in this way, however. They move with the times, or rather with the trade. These do not dread, perhaps, the knock of an intruder at the door, as does the home worker, but they see that which they cannot do without always on the wing, always deserting them, and they have to rise and follow it.

Still one must not, as Disraeli said, mistake comfort for civilisation. If "homes" are impossible, still we must have dwelling-houses, and there have been many efforts to provide these for the workers. The Peabody Dwellings offer flats to let at low terms, and Model Dwellings are run up, and the fact that the death rate is lower in these places than in London generally shows that they are not, as a rule, insanitary or uncomfortable. But in the Peabody Dwellings families are not "to themselves," and in nearly all "blocks" there is a coming and going of people who have a right to call and ask questions, and all this troubles the tenants. "We like our little home to ourselves," they say. And the social reformer understands very well this feeling. The philanthropist understands it. He knows that the thing he has to sacrifice in his block buildings is the individuality of his tenants. He has to make rules, to have common rooms, perhaps, for the use of several families, to keep order in the courts and staircases—in short, to give a kind of training, which may be useful, but which makes the dwelling-place a kind of school rather than a home. Wherever we turn, then, we find that to have a real home is becoming difficult—that the true home is getting to be almost a luxury! Many hundreds of thousands of us never dream of having one—never aspire to it! Only the well-to-do, they say, can pay for space, for solitude, for the home that is the castle of its owner. Hundreds of thousands cannot pay for it. For some nations all this would be no tragedy. It would not take the glow from life. But the gay sociableness of the Frenchman that makes him glad to talk and dine with a company, or the subtler kind of reserve and long social training that make the Japanese think doors almost useless, and let him require no solitude but only silence as a refuge—all this is not in the nature of the English or Scottish people. Reserved we may be, but silence is no complete refuge for us. The inner door of our heart does not close so sharply, or swing so loosely from the external world as does the Eastern's. We need homes! But many of us have none! Many Britons have no refuge! And the strange thing is that the people object, on moral grounds, to the tragedy that has taken place of necessity! They say: "We must do nothing to break up homes!" Why! the breaking up of the home has already gone on. It is going on all the time, and on a big scale! Homes are disappearing as the lower rocks disappear when the creeping billows wash farther and farther up the shore.

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To be homeless in one of our big cities is terrible, not because the people are inhumane, but because our hospitality is all *under cover*, and because we have put something between ourselves and Nature which has no pity because it is a mere means of dealing with blind forces. The stranger does not know this; he is terrified—horrified!

A poor Esquimaux, taken out into the streets of London, drew back overwhelmed, as if he had seen strong and terrible living things. He *had* seen them, but they were not directed against him. The Eastern comes hither—the Japanese, for example—new to the West. He hears the roar of traffic, beholds “the mountains of masonry with seas of labour in turmoil at their base.” Underground there is a city, and overhead there will be another soon, fixed on threads spun out somewhere above the towering cliffs of stone. In the factories and elsewhere there is restless movement, terrible fists, arms, lungs of leather and steel, and everywhere a power that makes men glad to feed this machinery—this soul of a monster. The Eastern, gazing at this, may say to himself, as Lafcadio Hearn said: “This civilisation is a wicked struggle between the simple and the cunning, the feeble and the strong; force and craft combining to thrust weakness into hell.” And, remembering the East and its sublime dreams, its ideals that have outsoared all the aspirations of the emotional life, he finds the East greater. It is not his soul that the Western projects, however, in machinery. The Race Soul is not in the rumbling cars and engines, but in the brave drivers, the miners, and stokers, and in the patient man in blue who is helping timid people through the traffic. The *motive power* of all human life is in the affections. Perhaps one day these will direct the other motive powers—steam and electricity. Meantime it is only a fragment of himself that the Briton embodies in his machinery. (Even the early Briton, with his Berserker rage turned into digging and draining and killing of wild beasts, would not have admitted that all his *soul* was in such work.) It wrestled with the inert and made machinery. But it wrestles also with the unseen, and doubtless the motive power that will subdue all others must be found at last.

But in the city, “walled to the sky and roaring like the sea,” the nature of this greater struggle does not make itself known. The shrine of the race is not there. So conscious are the people of this that they have a kind of prejudice against wanderers or homeless people. They despise and suspect tramps. Even a wandering saint would have to overcome prejudice here. Perhaps the prejudice can be justified more or less, for, though the greatest teachers have been homeless, yet the tramp child, the institution child, starts life with a terrible deficit.

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We are beginning to see that an institution is not a home, so whatever the word home may mean in softer climes, it means something dear, and necessary, and sacred here. Its part in the life of the nation is so great that responsibility of every kind is laid on those who have homes. They have votes. They have voices, and are listened to. Even here, in this little article, we are to think of the domestic economy, not of lodging places and of wanderers, but of home keepers and of homes. And it is now time to come to the point—that is, to the home.

The kingdom of the housewife is a miniature of the outer and larger kingdom of the community or State. The poorest home includes certain departments of work and thought, and all of which are represented in the larger world of the State. Finance, commerce, education, and health—housewives have concerned themselves with these for ages, though perhaps quite as unconsciously as Mr. Jourdain talked prose.

To take the greatest item of spending first—food. The modern housewife knows that in buying and preparing food she is supplying the thing out of which the silken thread of husband's and children's life is woven. The elaboration of the material that is swept up into what we call memory, consciousness, imagination, intellect, goes forward all dependent on the simple act of eating.

It appears that the human body does not ask very much in the way of raw material. Just as a little carbon will make a diamond, so a few elements will make a Shakespeare. Nature requires, however, that the food should be fresh, not stale, and that it should be clean and wholesome. Fresh milk, oatmeal or whole meal, some oil or fats, eggs, fresh vegetables, and fruit—this, with sugar, appears to be what is wanted, and when this is granted, Nature, if we may say so, *prefers* to do the rest herself. When we persist in doing any more we are only in the way.

For example, tossing on the purple life river in our veins there are bodies whose work it is to *stimulate*—"hormones" these bodies have been called. We know little of them, but we do know that they stir up and call forth special kinds of growth and activity, that they sound the *réveille* of the nervous system, and fill the shadowy chambers of life with the flame of hope. The hormones are, indeed, the natural wine of health. If it falls short there is mental depression, and then the victim may, and often does, fly to artificial stimulants, but they never take the place of the true wine, for they are never quite harmless. No one circulates his

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own blood, it is circulated in him; and no one makes the many things that are needed in a human economy, but they are made in him. Thus domestic economy may seem a small thing. It is a *great* thing to those who have a vision of the human economy, and of the part which the mere supplying of food plays in a great series or rather a great symphony of events.

The modern housewife, like the ancient one, has a humble task. Most people have a humble task to do in life. It is *the vision* that grows. The housewife's vision may expand so that the humble task will gain every year a new interest. What is the higher end to be attained more or less by the careful choice or preparation of bread, milk, vegetables, fruit, &c.? Mere rude vigour, a vision of healthy children. That is something, and yet it is only a foreground. Behind it is something that recedes into mystery—the evolution of finer forces, the play of well-nourished nerve tissue controlling lower structure, the elaboration of sensibility, of fine tact taking account of a world into which the grosser life does not penetrate, and the way in which all this is dependent on nutrition. To know that our very *ideas* of space, size, form, distance, weight, texture, are dependent on fine muscular movement, to know that the finer structures are the most costly, take the greatest amount of upkeep, as it were, to ensure the rapid renewal and change that conditions their functioning, what is this but to know that the loftiest kind of success as well as the most hopeless failure is very much a question of good or bad feeding? There is a picture, by Murillo, in which angels and cherubs are painted in a great kitchen. They are all very busy in the kitchen. One angel is near the fire, and one has a pan and another a pot, and they are cooking, preparing food—that is to say, they are doing what the housewife and her helpers have to do. An ethereal beauty is around the workers, and the homely surroundings take nothing from it—do not dim the aureole round any lovely angel head. Why, indeed, should the kitchen element quench their glory? A growing power of vision would only show more and more clearly how all home workers are really tending celestial fires, and preparing food for the higher life as well as the lower life.

Who, on this earth, are more “angels” to most of us than the good, dear mothers who did just this kind of work, and did it for long years? The greatest artists do not show us fantastic things. They simply show us *the truth*, which in vulgar haste, or amid the false shows of things, we were in danger of overlooking entirely. The angels' kitchen is the mothers' kitchen. It is the possession to-day—indeed, the monopoly to-day, of the better class of working man's family. The wretched class, the submerged, have no kitchen;

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and the rich do but engage cooks—not mothers or angels. Not for them does a divine love make radiant the humblest region of home.

We are assured on all hands that the well-fed classes and races display upon the whole a richer vitality, greater depth of character, greater brain power than their ill-fed brethren. They are “fit.” But what of those who have not eaten? Are *they* unfit? Even the more thoughtful politician will often jump to the conclusion that they *are*. Appearances, alas! are against them. “If they are fed they will multiply, and the unfit will swamp us,” they say in effect. But how can one say that a hungry or starved brain is “unfit,” since being starved it cannot show its powers or prove itself at all?

If there is one person who applies the true test, and asks the question “Are you fit or unfit?” fairly of the human brain it is the house mother, or provider of the raw material of thinking and doing. In the soil of the brain strange life is latent—latent for ever or wakened, it may be, late in life and by mere accident, as we say. And there are conditions which favour the awaking of this life, the movement of memories and experiences that are as the warm *débris* of life below the seed. Food, light, sunshine, colour, music, the tones and glances of love. Armed with these one may apply the true test—one may put oneself in touch with the child, with the illimitable past out of which he has come, and the horizonless future into which he is about to fling the wavering thread of his life.

If the vision had been given to our foremothers they would have rooted themselves more firmly than ever, if possible, in their homes. There they had arranged to do everything, and to accept responsibility. But the question is not so simple for the modern housewife. To take the commonest kind of food—bread—even that is not made by the average housewife to-day (though in the North the old art of bread making is practised even by mothers who go to the mill). It is made outside. By whom, and under what conditions, is it made? Anxiety must, perforce, translate itself into interest—an interest in bread-makers. She goes forth then to meet the bread-maker, and certainly it would appear that he is coming to meet her. “Some bakeries no doubt are sanitary,” he says, “but a great many are not. Perhaps you know nothing at all about the people who make your bread. You pay for the loaf, and think that makes things straight. What if your bread comes from some horrible place—it may still look white. Horrible and dangerous things are not often visible. There are bakeries where men work naked, bathed in sweat, in foul air. Diseased they may be, and weary, and with no access to washing places

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though they knead bread." Is not this awful news? Perhaps the housewife, terrified, may resolve to make her bread at home again. But even so, she cannot buy safety. To revive an old art is one thing, to change one's era is another. Even if the bread can be warranted safe, what of all the other kinds of food—vegetables, fruit, meat, butter, and milk? Alas! the milk alone kills a large proportion of the 120,000 babies who die in Britain every year. It comes from far away. It is brought from farms that are perhaps hundreds of miles away. If it is to be safe food it must be pure. But if it is to be pure and not a mere solution of bacteria then we have to think of the cow-house, of the milkers, of the railway men, of the can carriers, of the shopmen. Perhaps, too, we may think of the poor slum mother who has no larder, and whose house is damp, and built on foul, undrained soil.

"There is no point," says an Eastern book, "so large as the pricking of the point of the tip of a hair which is not pervaded by powerful spirits." And science meets the ancient wisdom at least so far as to declare that as much dirt as one can put on a pin is teeming with living things eager to enter and prey upon us. There seems to be no safety except through that new portal of interest leading to sympathy, and by means of which, perhaps, people shall not only be massed in factories and workshops, but shall live there under the protection of a cloud of witnesses, not present, but conscious always of those who toil for them.

The angels of Murillo could see *beyond* the kitchen. Is not that the meaning of the soft glory that suffuses all the place where they labour, changing and making strange nothing in the homely surroundings, yet pouring around all a light in which everything seems to become ethereal—transparent? The kitchen is a kitchen. The labour is a routine of toil that begins anew every morning. What of that if the four walls do not imprison the active brain—if in spite of them one can see the world beyond and its striving myriads? *Then* routine is no more mere routine than is the action of the heart or the flow of the blood through the arteries. It is a vital act renewed every day, and renewing along with it all the wonder, and joy, and mystery of living.

"Yes," some mother may cry at this point, "but how can one buy this vision? In order to see and have wide vision one must be educated, and I have little learning." Strange to say, mere learning does not give vision, though in many cases it seems to take it away. As I have said elsewhere, the best mothers who ever lived were not learned women, and the mother of Newton, of Goethe, of Carlyle had not matriculated. In what, then—since it is certain that sons inherit from mothers—did their superiority consist? As far as we can judge it consisted simply in the wealth

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and the depth of the *unconscious* life. It is only on the surface of the mind, as it were, that full consciousness is found—rising like the lily on the pond out of dark deep waters, but these deep waters of the unconscious life are rolled together and become still and clear during long ages of quiet receptive life—the life of mothers, for example, going about their homely tasks, but keeping the mind open to all the influences of nature, and carrying on, through all the difficulties of work-a-day life, a train of quiet experiments and reflection. For such women great men have an intuitive respect. They can never be heads of colleges. A pupil teacher, overworking that small part of the brain to which *conscious* learning is confined, might easily get far beyond them in any “subject,” but they become mothers of capable men—sometimes of great men. They have the materials that go to make “greatness,” and *their* learning is not barren.

It was well for the race that the power to speak and read did not come too quickly—well that our ancestors dreamed long and felt deeply before they found words. When people found names for the forces around them they veiled them, and it was long before *words* made vision clearer. But, however that may be, it would be fatal to think that a home should be *merely* a school. If it should ever happen that the British home shall become merely a school, then knowledge may be increased, but mental power will decline. There is something to be done at home that can never be done fully at school, and that is the feeding of the unconscious life. If that cannot be carried on in modern homes then the lonely hut of our forefathers was better than the modern home in that it offered greater opportunities for new experience, for leisure, for liberty to *prepare* the mind for knowing and for using all that is known or learned in new ways. But that primitive hut and its function should be developed, not forgotten. New power of choice should be offered in the modern home, and new suggestions made to the working, but free and open, mind. Here are books, here are tools, here are pictures and drawing materials. But if these do not become the material of dreams, and the subject of free experiment, what are they but mere dead weight and lumber? They can best pass into the dreams of the slumbering mind at home. In happy, vacant hours it is done, and all unconsciously—this filling of the reservoirs of the unconscious life. It is a very pleasant process, accompanied by feelings as indefinite and as delicious as falling asleep; so pleasant, indeed, that the alert conscience of our forefathers suspected it and called it “trifling,” “idleness,” “day dreaming”—which last was, to be sure, a very good definition. But it is not a “trifling” thing. It is the *forerunner* of all real power in any subject and of all initiative.

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It makes the subsoil of conscious knowledge.* And this soil is laid, not by teachers who have to give formal lessons, but by mothers who have to give opportunities, who feed the unconscious life, providing, it may be, books or tools, quiet free places and peace, who give holiday times, and are not in a hurry to explain simple things that absorb and attract. To be sure the mother may desire to give formal teaching as well, and will probably do this better, in some ways, than a stranger can. The Germans, recognising this, have opened Froebelian classes for mothers—classes which go a good way beyond Froebel, and where mothers learn how to draw mannikins, animals, and flowers, how to tell a story, and to model in clay. If a mother has mastered these arts, and if she can teach any science, no doubt she will, other things being equal, be better equipped for appealing to the conscious mind than another teacher. But what I want to show is that a great many mothers who had not reached this *final* stage of actual achievement, who were not learned, have yet achieved much—*have done the essential thing that makes the highest achievement possible*. And they did this by making the home the cradle as well as being themselves the treasury of the unconscious life.

Modern schools, as such, have another function. It is becoming clear that they cannot take, educationally, the place of homes. Once, perhaps, when they were really places of leisure, schools did some important share of this work. But the modern school is not a place of leisure. Hardly have we succeeded in making it a leisured place even for the babies. (It is not very long since they were compelled to keep awake, and compelled to work in school!) Now the best teachers think of the unconscious life and feed it, but they have to think mainly of the conscious. The new world of industry and science is young, and growing rapidly. To enter it unarmed or ignorant is to be used by it as a mere cog of its awful machinery, and nearly all our children are going to enter it. The nation that hesitates to educate, as well as the individual who will not learn, is to-day threatened. So all civilised nations make haste to open schools, and in these the appeal is mainly to the

* To take an example. Suppose two girls go to a cookery class. One has never seen any food prepared, the other has *played* at cooking, and watched her mother cooking a hundred times. Neither may actually know much. But one is not prepared to learn, while the other can hardly help learning rapidly when the formal teaching is given or the call suddenly on the *conscious* mind, thanks to the rich sub-conscious experience that underlies her ignorance. Or suppose a boy goes to learn woodwork, having loitered about a joiner's shop for years, and cut his hands by using tools on all kinds of wood. It is easy to see that he will be ready for the formal lesson and understand it as those who have no experience cannot.

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conscious. Moreover, the classes are so big that they seem to forecast that great crowded world in which the children will soon enter. How should such places do the work of homes!

Children go to school mainly for the feeding and training of that small part of the brain that is concerned with conscious learning. But some are so ill-furnished that the teacher halts, instinctively, embarrassed like a gardener who finds himself in an enclosure of sand! At this point the inspector may come in hurriedly—"Where are the healthy shoots from this soil? I cannot see them! But the system or method of teaching must be wrong," and he departs, leaving confusion and distress behind him. Then it may happen that a doctor—perhaps, even a great doctor—may enter and depart, and then we read words like these in some learned medical journal: "Culture is all very well—if one *can* be cultivated. But the brain-soil of most people is not capable of the cultivation which the law prescribes. This educating of the multitude only induces weakness—perhaps insanity." Not one of these observers may, however, have tested the value or the quality of the brain-soil. They have merely planted rootless flowers, and seen them withering. It is probably the home life, not the brain-soil, that is at fault.

Meantime the school-going child faces new risks—risks undreamt of, perhaps, by all in 1870, when the first Education Act was passed. The death rate among adults has gone down fast during the past thirty years. But the death rate among children has not run down so fast. In so far as nervous diseases are concerned the number of deaths is as great as ever. The wonder is, however, that the death rate among school children has not gone up rapidly. It remains stationary only because new measures are taken, and because, faced by new dangers, the authorities have begun to study the problems of hygiene with new earnestness. There is a group of illnesses (called "Schulkrankheiten" in Germany) that are peculiar to school children. They are the result of the new life within the walls of school, of the sitting at desks, the formal drill and discipline, and the new strain on certain parts of the nervous system that are of late formation and unready for much exercise. There is, moreover, the new risk of contagion that must be run in schools. Yet, in spite of all the new risks and strain, it is not hard to see that school life must sooner or later raise the standard of health and lessen the mortality among children.

That is to say, we come together at our peril. Yet, if we learn the new law, to our infinite gain! Overcrowding is such an evil that we almost say it is the sum of all evils, and yet, thanks to the congestion of towns, the sanitation of palaces and even villas has

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been much improved. And if the doting mother, having true vision, thinking of her own child, looks through the crowded schools to find those who have helped him, it is to the least happy and gifted children of all that she must offer "the gladness of her thanks." For who showed the meaning of failure and arrest if not the poor feeble-minded child in whom all the processes of mind are slowed down, as it were, and even disconnected more or less, so that they can be observed and interpreted? Who betrayed to us the complexity of things we call simple, such as the learning to name things, to spell, to write, if not the children who *failed* originally at one stage or another of the task? Who, in short, ushered in the reign of *natural* training based on physiological laws if it was not this afflicted child whose woes have made of him an easy *illustration* of dimly perceived truth?

Turning from these to others—viz., the neglected children who constitute a risk for the clean and healthy—the mothers of this generation may think of something else than mere exclusiveness and flight. The whole race is waiting for those who do not exclude, who do not fly. It has waited long. Hitherto the best mothers have thought of keeping their children in safe places—not of making dark places bright and safe for all. The novelty of the position in which the better class of working mother is placed to-day is that she cannot well fly, but is almost compelled to solve the problem from which others have fled in dismay! What if she now realised that, in face of the menace offered by the diseased, the unclean, the famished, and neglected, the school cannot yet be a place for mere conscious learning, but must take account of other matters, and offer opportunities and experiences for healthy living. Then, indeed, she might open the door to new reforms—admit unknown angels to whom the world is yet a stranger.

And now let us go back where we started—to our ancestors dreaming in their mud hovel, isolated, with the rain on the roof; to our foremother—our remote ancestress. She lived here, but how remote from us. She found her world in her home, and it was a small world—a mere cell flung down by chance, as it were, and connected little or not at all with any other. But she has something to leave—to bequeath—something that has become ours. And what is that heritage? To begin with, it is *not* her narrow sympathies. Sometimes we speak as though that was all she left, and it almost seems as if some believed it was the duty of women to care *only* for those of her own household. But we have seen that these narrow sympathies must be outgrown. There is not even any security possible till they have been lost in a wider outlook on life. Women cannot remain indifferent spectators any longer. They will at least take a growing interest (even if it be

only through self-interests) in questions of social importance. They must think of the workers, the children, the homeless they do not see; and, thinking of these, they may even perhaps find some use for the civic rights which they once allowed to drop like vain toys from their hands. But it was not her civic rights that the woman of the past has left to us, any more than it was her narrow sympathies. She left us *her Dream*—the dream that haunts the “fitful fever” of even the grossest British life; the dream that can find no rest in marble, no expression even in music, no embodiment in art; the dream that cannot be fixed because it is the movement behind all movement, that cannot fade because it is immortal, that revives in every joy, and floats like a bow of promise above all sorrow. Some have been ashamed of it, and certainly it is often turned (by witty people) into a reproach.

Critics of the British people say that their moral energy is so great and so restless that it is always in the way—that, for example, when they look at any work of art it is for them not a thing whose beauty is an end in itself, but a mere mode of expressing some moral truth, and that when it fails to do this they see no meaning in it at all. No doubt there is some truth in this. Ruskin, the great art critic, was truly English in looking at art from the point of view of a moralist, and mathematicians, too, such as Boole and others, were English in that their books on mathematics are almost religious treatises. But this tendency is surely no “weakness.” The moralist mathematician and art critic were of the first order. And why should a “moral ideal” be more in the way than an “artistic ideal?” And if an artistic race can see beauty in science, why should not another race look for the moral ideal in both art and science? In any case these criticisms cannot alter the temperament and mode of viewing things of the British people. “Follow thou thy star,” says the poet, and what can a race do other than follow its own star? At its peril does it grow ashamed of its star and attempt to follow someone else’s.

But has our race not been striving to follow it these thousands of years? To go back far beyond the ancestress who lived in a solitary hut on the plains—back to the England of forgotten centuries whose traces are left only in the soil and shaping of the hills and downs—even *they* must have begun to determine the nature of our ideal. Their great enemy was the wolf—and their fear revives in us still. We know that they lighted their fires on the hills, and made earthwork platforms and trenches, and that behind the embankments they listened nightly to the howling of the wolves, and glancing forth at dawn or dusk caught glimpses of grey, hungry-eyed foes slinking past in the shadow. Their fear

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is in us in infancy, and is conquered anew in every new life.* But they had other feelings—feelings of awe before the sun in his splendour and in his return. Later the wolf-ridden plains were cleared, sun temples were reared in them, and through the wild forest floated a new splendour. In the storm there was a new music—the voice of some great Spirit heard above the silence. Small wonder that the love of the moral ideal in Britons should be for every other love as the sword is to the scabbard, that it should override them in the racial heart to-day. For the emotional life of the race is older and stronger than the intellectual life—and ours was gathering force and impetus through all the centuries. That is why the people flung themselves, as it were, on the great book—the Bible—read it, pondered it, solemnly accepted it; why people went gladly to martyrdom; why later they entered on a series of social experiments (of which this Co-operative movement itself is one), and why (to the astonishment of foreigners) our parks and streets are crowded on week nights and Sundays with preachers and social reformers listened to by earnest crowds. The most thoughtful foreigners are puzzled by all this. But all this is not mere caprice. The impulse of it comes from the under depths of the racial life, from far-away ancestors, whose desire, rising like a wave and gathering strength in every generation, has finally poured itself into all our varied interests and diversity of individual types, and has determined the nature of the racial ideal.

Doubtless it is well to accept it—to endure criticism of it, and accept it gladly. It is going some whither, this current of human life and sympathy, and already it seems as if before it there opened a vista filled with light, strange and fair, as of that which after short nights glances through the lifted curtains of the morning. Sometimes in the midst of all the clamour of our Western civilisation we seem to catch a glimpse of that beauty toward which we are advancing, not by our material conquests but in spite of these. If there is still something that holds us back, and veils our eyes, it is still our heritage—the heritage of fear.

Our remote ancestors fled from the wolves and feared them. But at last they destroyed the wolves. We, too, fly or are tempted to fly from disease, ignorance, and neglected beings. "The men went out to kill the wolves," some woman may say, "that was their work. They must also go on and destroy disease and

* In Stanley Hall's "Study of Children's Fears" he remarks that children are still terribly afraid of fur, and of great eyes and ears. They have never seen a wild animal, yet they are afraid of the fur, the eyes, &c. Little children, too, are terrified at the sound of the wind at nights, and some fancy that "wild beasts" are just outside the door—as, indeed, they used to be!

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dangerous things in the dark under world of *our* age." But it is not physical strength and the power to kill that will ever banish disease.

The weapon that is wanted now is a new one. A strange indication of this is given in a recent pamphlet. "The mentally defective nowadays are better protected," says the writer. "There is less room for them in the world, and they are better looked after, and their high death rates are yearly lowered. We have an increasing number of gamblers, criminals, public-house loafers, types of low-grade minds. *The first necessity for the protection of society is that all these individuals should be known.*" They should be known! "And to-day," he adds, "*this is easy.*" It is easy now because finger-print registers may be taken of those who are a danger, because they can be discovered in early life, and because the community will become a conscience for them. It is easy because account is being taken of many now, and the highest as well as the humblest will by and by have to live exposed to the searchlight of medical science, revealing what was once hidden, revealing it in spite of all the national reserve and exclusiveness. It is not evil, but its opposite, that will remain a mystery, for it is the higher and not the lower nature that is *continuously* revealed. And the knowledge which is the weapon of our age is within the reach of many. It is coming gradually within the reach of all.

"But how can *I* make such investigations?" the housewife may ask, and again the answer is, "You need not make them." It is the *result* of investigations that passes into the keeping of everyone. The child of to-day knows many things about the world that Socrates did not know, or Plato. So the housewife of to-day can find the new knowledge brought to her doors. She can use it if she will, and do all daily tasks in the light of it. And she may make sacred, if she will, not only her home, but the world in which her children are living.

And just as for the bold plain dwellers who dared to kill the enemy and come down from the hills Nature began to sing a new song, so for those who destroy disease and vice in the lower plains of society a new music will become audible. It is from them that we await the new hope—the new vision. To them, however, we cannot begin to define it.

The Continued Industrial Evolution:

Its Bearing on the Labour Question.

BY J. M. KNIGHT.

“In olden days trade followed the flag;
To-day, trade follows—brains.”

THESE words summarise the conclusions of an eminent student who has recently given the English-speaking world much food for thought and reflection. But if we look back ourselves what do we find? If we commence our search before the days of flags and of the march of armies; if we go further back than these, and look for facts even before the tribal stages of peoples, we shall see that the first form of all industry rose simply enough, in the consciousness of kind which early man gradually felt towards early man. That consciousness associated those who were involved in the same processes of toil, and, in a primitive form, created an exchange of the fruits of the earth, giving the first notions of the great principle of industry, and of possibilities and improvement. And though each generation may have done little, yet those succeeding to the gain of their predecessors gradually elevated the status of mankind, just as coral polyp building one on the other elevate themselves from the bottom of the sea.

In the old stone age paleolithic man dwelt in caves or in rude huts of branches and leaves, and his implements were of the roughest type; but in the succeeding period the neolithic men used tools which were often highly polished, and required considerable skill in manufacture. It was a new epoch, and, in the sequence of events, mankind began to gather themselves into tribes, between whom, of necessity, there grew a varied and distinct commerce. Weaving and pottery originated in these days, and there was soon a rude knowledge of agriculture, with the sheep and the horse at hand for domestic needs. But tribes increased: mighty hosts were feeding on the products of the earth: and inevitably a dawn spread its sun upon a population which tended to outrun subsistence. In her bountiful goodness Nature changed the lonely cave-dwellers to the fine race of men who were the forerunners of ancient mankind, and in the steps of progress a fiat was given forth. Civilisation demanded new places and new conditions, and the hills and valleys soon resounded to

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the heavy tramp of countless feet for the West. In every epoch, wherever we look, we see the same phenomena—the seeming ceaseless movement towards the setting sun; the decline of the East, the rise of the West. Thus we see the migration of the Asiatics. It brought the discovery of bronze, and in the next advance man was mining for iron.

The greatest established nation, seventy centuries ago, was the Egyptian, which had assumed a fixed and petrified civilisation, and even its art had finally a conventional and inflexible form. Yet behind that there had been a time of life and vigour, a freshly developed and an expanding race, which had built a network of splendid canals to assist the internal industries of its country. Indian dyes were extensively imported for many purposes, and not until the heyday of Assyria did the centre of trade finally move. The Phœnicians were the next people to rise to fame, and they held both sea and land during many decades, supplying all the known world with their wares of gold and silver, with earthenware and glass, and with linen and woollen goods. The coming of the glorious Greek, however, displaced these fine old sailors and traders, but after the fall of Athens the world's centre moved again, this time to the great empire whose capital was at Rome. Curiously, not until this period did the Chinese become known to civilisation, a large traffic having grown up for their valuable silks; and the district of the Rhine—which is so serious a competitor of ours in these days—even then was foremost in many industries. Basle was a mighty town, and Strasburg a keen rival. Egypt and Spain were the important granaries for the working peoples of all near lands; and Constantinople made the gateway city betwixt India-China and Europe.

But before the Goth and Vandal had broken through the cordon of the Roman legions, even while her frontiers were advancing, Rome was dead at the heart. Great estates ruined Italy, and inequality dried up the life of the Roman youth. Patriotism became servility, fertile provinces were made the waste of ravages; the sunken husbandry became slaves. After Rome, Venice claimed the honour of leading the world; after Venice, Genoa. Meantime, in our own country we had reached the days when the Saxon and Dane, controlling our institutions and influencing our early handicrafts, were settling here. Devoting ourselves mainly to agriculture we seem to have prospered, and all remained at peace till the appearance of the Norman, the next alien upon our shores. With him there came that scheme of land tenure which we know by the title of the manorial system, and under which the ordinary country workman was

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tied at once to the lord and the soil. Weaving commenced in London about the year 1150, and the woollen industry began in a small way in Yorkshire a century later, though agriculture was yet our staple industry (as, indeed, it remained for five hundred years). The famous Hanse Towns of the Continent were contemporaneous with the birth of our Yorkshire woollen industry, and their remarkable prosperity shifted at one stroke the centre of the world's industry. Sweden also dates its importance from this period, its southern ports being used by the Hanse merchants as distributing depôts; indeed, many of the present ports were built in those days, and the shipping in them was assisted—if not owned—by the league. Nuremberg arose from the efforts of the same body, and our own capital was commercially established by them at the time. A century later many skilled artisans migrated to England from Flemish towns; Winchester was founded, and the sequel to this invasion was the steady rise everywhere in artisans' wages. Fifty years after commenced a new epoch; from then we date the rise of the Netherlands as the all-important Power, and Italy ranked in second place owing to her newly-established traffic in Eastern products. Three events occurred, however, before the close of this, the fifteenth century, which revolutionised all existing commerce. Columbus had discovered America, Gama found the Cape route to India, and the Turk had scattered over Europe the scholars remaining native at the Bosphorus from old Greek and Roman times. Which of the trio was the greatest for posterity is difficult to approximate even at this distance, but from one the nations profited by the gift of the mariner's compass and the telescope, and of gunpowder and printing. Opportunities, and the thoughts of empire, followed also the trains led by Columbus and Gama, and from their days the contest in the world became a long one of conquest, one for the possession of India and North America, with the Spaniards rapidly colonising the territories of Central and South America. The days were those of romance, of vicissitudes, of hopes and accomplishments, the whole embodied in a magnificent framework of flashing visions and music. At no age since has the spirit of enterprise been so daring, and the purple seas soon floated the old high-pooped vessels away into the unknown, with the flag on the masthead, and the huge square sails slashed with their crimson crosses. Whether we talk of Columbus, or Gama, or the Dutch, or Elizabeth's old sea captains, the period gives us the finest story in the world, one swept with the fancy to sail down the edges and waste spaces of the world, one which crowds with men who in the hour of evil fortune displayed a fortitude and dignity which won for them the love of all peoples.

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Regular fleets date from the closing years of this busy century. Venice organised a service through the Straits of Gibraltar to Southampton, Bruges, and Antwerp; and the goldsmiths of Venice also commenced the banking system which is known to us in these days, and which was, doubtless, responsible for much of the industrial development. The fall of Hamburg and Bremen, owing to the competition of the Netherlands, gave birth to the city of Augsburg, which fortune had placed midway on the overland route across Europe, but—though at one time a city of considerable importance—the city did not sustain a successful rivalry with Antwerp, which was then under the leadership of several men since famous in history; and but for one of the worst blots upon civilisation—the sacking of Antwerp by the Spaniards in 1585—that city might have remained the trading centre of the world to this hour. Yet the smashing of Antwerp did nothing for its captors. Antwerp was rebuilt, and Spain, struggling for might and power, and forgetting immutable laws, began that fall which brought her to the lowest depths of weakness. England, meanwhile, had been again the asylum of Continental reformers. Among them were men from the best schools of foreign industry, who immediately gave that impetus to our commerce which, seventy years later, placed our capital in an unrivalled position. As we have just said, three generations stood between the fall of Antwerp and the time of Cromwell's dictatorship, when, beyond doubt, London was, for the first time, the capital of the world; but there is no dispute among historians that the sacking of Antwerp at one blow gave London that golden opportunity, and London became of premier importance. Glass engraving, root crops, mining, clockmaking, and cordage were introduced here; new potteries were founded in London; the paper industry and the hat trade were begun; silk weaving began at Canterbury, thread making at Maidstone, and new cutlery at Sheffield; whilst lacemaking, the manufacture of cotton, and the manufacture of woollens were other results from the continuous influx of many foreign workpeople. The rise of joint-stock companies, the spasmodic growth of our merchant fleet, our large commerce with the Levant, the Netherlands, India, Russia, and France; our exports of broadcloth, tin, iron, wool, and worsted goods, and imports of calicoes (from India), spices, wax, and wines—these and other causes worked incessantly for the elevation of the Englishman. War, tyranny, and superstition were the retarding forces which, amid advancing knowledge, put Europe back, and brought her to that moment when we lose ideas of progress; when great cities, highly organised and powerful Governments, large commerce, and elaborate arts are each arrested in their plastic,

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free, and advancing civilisation. In the year 1635 we founded a general post, and in the years just prior coal-mining commenced at the port of Newcastle, which, till then, had been a fishing town. At this time we were quickly acquiring colonies and plantations ; and Dutch settlers and Scotsmen in London, some years later, founded our Bank of England and marine insurance companies.

If we pass now to the days of invention and of the industrial revolution, to those days when the "Wealth of Nations" was the subject of discussion at every intellectual gathering, we shall see, firstly, the collapse of the domestic system in industry and an army of ruined yeomen turned off their farms—this though seven million acres of waste land had been reclaimed, and the increased consumption of wool was stimulating sheep-breeding at home. Yet the assimilation of these hosts of men into the trades which had their beginning from the changes of the period was a phase of the wonderful transition which has since become one of the outstanding facts in British history. It has been said of our advance in those times that the homogeneity of our civilisation had moulded men for high places, and had put them in great trust as easily as placing bricks inside a pyramid. Indeed, whole populations had been moved to North and Central England and to Southern Scotland, and the steam-engine had become the brawn of national strength and the spirit of independence. Bradford, Leeds, Halifax, and Huddersfield were centres for woollen yarn and cloth, and Exeter, Sudbury, Norwich, and Kendal, their keen competitors. By the year 1834 there were 1,300 spinning mills and 70,000 workpeople (of whom 49,000 were women), and by them some 180,000,000lbs. of wool were worked, compared with 101,000,000lbs. in 1801 and 20,000,000lbs. in 1738. The cotton manufacturers were seated in Manchester and in the counties of Nottingham, Derby, Cheshire, and Stafford, and in the wealth of their magnificence they were starving millions of hand-spinners and weavers in India. Women were three-quarters of the operatives ; and 8,000,000 spindles, 110,000 power-looms, and 250,000 handlooms were in use. Liverpool and Manchester, with a population of 700,000 ; Glasgow, with 300,000 ; Rochdale, with 75,000 ; Bolton, Preston, Stalybridge, and Oldham, each with 60,000, all owed their birth and distinction to the new cotton industry. The enormous importation of raw material which was required for these mills and factories had started our ocean traffic ; and besides these there were the lace-making trade, which had moved to Nottingham, Leicester, Wiltshire, and Devon ; the linen business at Leeds, Dundee, and Belfast ; the silk industry at Macclesfield, Congleton, Manchester, Paisley, and London ; and the flax mills in

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Belfast, the South of Scotland, Dorset, and Lancashire. Derby was the great hosiery town, and London the emporium for all men and all produce. The same golden story can be written of the mining and metal trades. For an example, the production of iron grew enormously under the new processes of smelting and puddling—in the thirty years from 1805 to 1835 the turn-out had increased twenty-six fold—and the hardware industry dates its commencement from this fact. Lead mines were in work in Cornwall, Durham, and Northumberland; coal mines in Northumberland, Durham, Leicestershire, and Warwickshire (employing 118,000 persons, most of whom were lads); Wales was exporting copper and tin, and Cornwall tin; Birmingham and Sheffield had risen out of Huntsman's invention in casting steel; locks and nails were being made in Wolverhampton; needles at Warrington; nail forges in Wigan and on the East Coast of Scotland; Wedgewood had founded the pottery industry in Staffordshire; and the dawn of the railway had come to further heighten the passion for wealth and commerce. In a sentence, we were Kings of the Earth! In 1816 our exports were £36,000,000, in 1848 £133,000,000, and in 1854 £243,000,000. Then Great Britain had reached a quarter of the world's trade. The whole truth scarce finds easy acceptance by us—the grandchildren of those factory men. Words fail the glorious vision which haunted the England of a century ago and the hopes of fitful splendour. We were men of ideas—the Englishman was the born inventor; but the shuttle and loom were not the sum of all glory. Napoleon's fall added a step to our advance, and the repeal of the Navigation Laws put the world's shipping at our mercy. China was opened up to trade in 1840. Scandinavia was great for her exportations of timber, Russia for hemp, Spain for metals, and Jamaica and Demerara were the sugar centres. In 1860 the Crimean War stopped the growth of Russia in Southern Europe, and to that war is attributed the steady fall in prices world-wide during the subsequent forty-five years. Following that fight Russia emancipated her serfs, and dates the opening-up of her industry. Till 1870 Paris remained the centre of transport by land; then Berlin captured that place, and all Germany has now advanced! The United States dates its rise from the same year. The entry of Japan into the arena of nations was only heralded in 1871, when the first factory machine was sent there and a system of education put in force. To-day Japan is a competitor and a power! Thirty-six years back Italy was unified; thirty years ago the possession of the Suez Canal passed to England, but India, Marseilles, and Brindisi alone have benefited; commercially, we have lost by it. Argentina sent away her first load of wheat in

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1886, in the same year that an herculean attempt was made by many at home to organise our unskilled labour. Since that time we have developed the electrical, cycle, and motor trades. Forty years back America produced practically all the cotton for the world: a civil war rooted up her fields, and planters fled to India and Egypt. These two countries are now cotton-growing countries, and one is a cotton-goods manufacturing country, competing with Lancashire. Germany is pushing her interests in Asia Minor, the United States is extending its possessions in far-off seas, England holds the Persian Gulf, and Japan exercises an authority over China. What will be the effect of these many factors upon the labour movement?

Before we hazard an answer to this question we must review the position of typical industries, and that which is one of the oldest of all, and commands the mechanical reaper and thrasher where once the scythe and the flail were used, should have our first consideration. Whether its new chemistry, aided by the science of meteorology and by Government actions, have helped to stay the forces which tend, in many countries, to devoid the land of cultivation remains still one of the gravest problems. For the present let us see the three groups of the grain areas:—

1. Countries in which Grain Areas are Decreasing.	2. Countries in which Grain Areas are Stationary.	3. Countries in which Grain Areas are Increasing.
United Kingdom (in the southern counties particularly). Belgium. Norway. Switzerland. France (grain has to be imported largely). East Indies (the grain industry is practically dead).	Italy. Holland. Germany (grain has to be imported largely). Austria.	Hungary. Russia (10,000,000 acres added since 1871). Roumania. Australasia. Argentina. India. United States (100,000,000 acres have been added since 1870). Canada (grain fields have increased ten times since 1893).

Fifty years back we had 1,400,000 farm labourers; to-day we have 700,000! And even in Denmark, where circumstances are favourable to agriculture, the people are steadily drifting townwards. The numbers of agriculturists are given us:—In the United Kingdom, 2,500,000; in Belgium, 600,000; in France, 6,500,000; in Germany, 8,000,000; and in the United States one in every eight is employed somewhere on the land for feeding the 80,000,000 persons at home and an immense export trade. The

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East Indies at one time held the premier position, Russia bid for the honour till the United States rose, to-day Argentina is a living centre, to-morrow Canada will undoubtedly hold the first place

“To enrich the markets of the golden year.”

In milling, Austria has been gradually superseding her wheat exports with flour exports, and is obtaining a wide market. With ourselves it is a case not of export, but of import. Thirty years back no flour was imported here, but to-day we have 800,000 tons annually from other countries. Yet how long this will remain is open to speculation; in particular Liverpool, of late years, has been badly hitting the large millers of America. Another bright ray lies in offals. This is a new article for export, but has developed into a large trade through the rise of Denmark in the bacon markets.

In the dairying branch of agriculture we find that Italy, Russia, Denmark, and Northern Africa are competing. Italy's trade doubled between the years 1889 and 1901, and will be further assisted in time by the use of the 2,000,000 acres of reclaimed land. Denmark, however, shows a stupendous growth in butter and eggs. Twenty-five years ago the export of the former reached 10,000 tons, and of eggs 24,000,000; last year the figures were 74,000 tons and 378,000,000 respectively. *The facts reveal the transfer of a trade from the Irish to the Danes.* Another branch of agriculture, the rearing of stock, also gives some striking results. For example, in our own country, and in France and Norway, a decrease in numbers continues; in Belgium the sheep is actually extinct; in Italy, Russia, and Austria live stock has remained stationary in quantity; in the United States there has been an enormous development, 100,000,000 additional sheep having been added during the past quarter of a century. The significant point, however, is this: after a keen struggle, lasting sixty years, Australasia has finally deposed Central Europe, and Argentina is quickly coming to the front as a keen rival. In pigs, Denmark alone in the world points the road to an enlarging industry. Started there only nineteen years ago, in 1904 the export of bacon reached 80,000 tons! What do we find in one other branch, the fruit industry? At the time of our grandfathers the Cape was the great centre. Later, the cultivation of the vine was the ambition of every German workman, but after much expenditure of capital and labour it failed. Italy then began, and so far succeeded that the wine trade centred there until Algeria, in 1878, entered the field, and France also seriously turned attention to vineyards. In the United Kingdom we had 217,000 acres under orchards and small fruit, this was in 1873; by 1904 another 100,000 acres were added. This is not much, however, and we must remember that fruit employs far more labour than any other crops; fifty acres of fruit

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land actually costs more in labour than 1,000 acres of ordinary corn land, and, besides, there is the extra work required in the picking season, and the indirect trades, viz., cider making, jam making, and basket work.

Mining is an industry which we all read of in our school histories, one tale being of old Mediterranean traders who were habitual visitors to our Cornish coast for tin. Many tides have ebbed against the shores of Cornwall since that period, and merchants no longer go there for that one purpose. Centres, indeed, have changed. But wherever we look we see that mining was one of the oldest industries, and, like agriculture, was more or less the rock of slave labour in the early days of history. Time brought improvements, the mitigation of much of the arduous labour, and the entrance of free men, and during our own lives machinery has become an important factor. Excluding coal and iron—of which more hereafter—we find that until the year 1867 nearly all the copper came from Chili; to-day the United States occupies that enviable position. Spain, however, is increasing her production, and there are mines yet at work around Swansea and in Germany. Lead was dug in Spain before the dawn of 1800, and is still produced in large quantities, but much of that also comes from the United States, from our own mines, and Germany. For zinc the largest fields in the world are said to exist in Prussia, but it is overlooked that those in India are almost undeveloped, quite contrary to the position of Belgium, which was once a great centre, though no longer so—in fact, we turn out more from our own mines in Wales and Cumberland. Oil is another mineral which must be mentioned, especially as gossip persists that the United States has the largest output. True, the States has an immense trade in oil, but the total production is actually greater from Southern Russia! Now look at the consumption of coal:—

COAL CONSUMED PER HEAD OF POPULATION (IN TONS).

	1900.		1900.
United Kingdom	4'18	Sweden	0'66
United States	3'13	Spain	0'25
Belgium	2'95	Russia	0'15
Germany	1'77	Italy	0'15
France	1'19	Japan	0'09

Where does this all come from? In the reign of Edward II. we were sending it to France. In 1660 we produced 2,000,000 tons, in 1800 10,000,000 tons; but the beginning of our world-wide commerce in coal was the time when raw materials were wanted for our new factories, and coal formed a ballast cargo outwards at consequently very low freights. At the opening of that period it

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formed only 1 per cent. of our exports; but by 1840 commenced the era of the pits of South Wales. Cardiff and Newport were born. (Cardiff sends away now 15,000,000 tons of coal yearly.) In 1906 200,000 British colliery men are working continually upon export orders, and indirectly they feed railway men, tippers, trimmers, and shipping people! The year 1879 saw a production of 133,000,000 tons, and 1904 of 232,000,000. But this fabulous increase is not all due to our export. Three other points arise: firstly, the immense growth of our factories; secondly, the growth of our iron and steel industries; and, thirdly, the greater consumption for domestic use. Another consideration is that under prevailing processes of manufacture we use some two tons of coal for every ton of pig iron, and nearly four tons for every ton of made steel: hence a large iron and steel industry means in these days a much increased coal industry. We might reasonably say, however, that the United States began to search for coal markets in 1880, though Germany had long been a competitor with ourselves. And what has happened in the subsequent twenty-one years? The United Kingdom is still the source of supply for South America, some parts of Europe, Ceylon, the Far East, and Australasia. (The last two have opened up pits themselves, but the weight produced is still relatively small.) The United States monopolise Canada and Central America, and Germany exports to Central Europe, Russia, France, and the Netherlands. As we write, the position of the coal-producing countries may be placed as follows: first, the United States; second, the United Kingdom; then Germany; any others are not worth considering. Thirty years back we held more than one-half the coal industry of the whole world, and we must appreciate the fact that we still go forward at a greater pace than Germany, or, say, France and Belgium. The United States alone has seized a large part of this industry, and India hit us in her own domain when opening pits in 1860. The former raises 260,000,000 tons of coal every year, we follow close up with 240,000,000, and Germany with 105,000,000. A glance at the average wages of miners will be useful.

AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGES OF MINERS.

	1840.	1860.	1880.	1905.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
South Wales	21 0	...	36 0	35 0
Northumberland	21 0	...	36 5	35 0
South Scotland	22 10	...	29 4	38 0
United States	40 6	46 0
Germany	13 6	15 3	16 0
France	7 6	10 7	16 1	18 6
Belgium	6 0	15 6

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Before discussing the iron industry it is convenient to compare the total number of workpeople engaged, putting the various mine occupations together:—

TOTAL WORKPEOPLE ENGAGED IN ALL KINDS
OF MINES (IN THOUSANDS).

	1883.	1903.
United Kingdom.....	570	871
United States	313	615
Germany	311	607
Russia	177	377
Austria	153	227
France	117	180
Belgium	105	135
Spain.....	9	91
Italy	50	64

Iron was known in the days of the Romans, and has been worked in Central Europe from early times. So far back as the year 1679 "smelting" was known in England, and a century afterwards there were ironworks at Warwick, Stafford, Hereford, and Monmouth. Seemingly the ore was imported for them from Germany, and the production was some 18,000 tons a year. By another fifty years the production had risen to 125,000 tons, and in 1826 came the application of what is known as the "hot blast" process, which gave the great impetus to the industry. In 1840 we were turning out 1,000,000 tons of pig iron each year; in 1876 this had reached 6,000,000, and in 1902 9,000,000. The district production of pig iron (based upon statistics for the year 1902) is now as follows (in thousand tons):—

Cleveland	1,914	(The industry only dates here from 1850, and is due to the finding of ironstone).
Cumberland and Lancs.	1,470	(A gradually increasing business).
Scotland	1,295	(Up to 1850 this was <i>the</i> centre of the industry).
Lincoln and Notts.....	1,178	(Dates from 1855 only).
Durham	948	(A gradually increasing business).
Wales	756	(These districts show a gradual decline throughout many years).
Staffordshire	593	
Yorkshire.....	259	

Per week per furnace the turnout, 260 tons, compares with 30 tons in, say, 1806. Spain sends us an immense quantity of pig, and from the year 1894 has displaced the hitherto large shipments from Sweden. On the other hand, we send large consignments to Australasia, Canada, Denmark, France, Italy, Japan, and Germany. Experts inform us that the Cleveland ores will be exhausted in another twenty-five years, whereas Germany (who has hardly

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opened this industry) has ore to last for 800 years. India, Russia, Cuba, and Canada possess huge stocks awaiting development. The output of the leading nations compares, viz.:—

PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON (IN THOUSAND TONS).

	1880.	1890.	1903.
United Kingdom.....	Not agreed.	7800	9000
United States	191	3900*	17800†
Germany	300	2700	10000‡
France	220	1700	3000
Russia	160	450	2500

Spain should show a large increase, but the facts are unobtainable.

Gilchrist's invention in 1879 enabled the Continent to compete with us.

* 1876 may be said to date the serious start of the United States.

† Scarcely any is exported. ‡ Kartell's practically control the trade.

In the iron and steel industries the "Trusts" of America have £117,000,000 invested, and they bought out all the indirect interests, including several shipping companies and the railways adjoining the fields. In 1890 they exported £5,000,000 of steel manufactures, and by 1900 this had risen to £24,000,000. The production was 1,600,000 tons in 1883, but 15,000,000 tons in 1902 (seriously hitting Germany!). Compared with these figures some countries look small. In steel, however, we doubled our exports between 1893 and 1903 (even to the United States), and to Japan and the East Indies the increase was phenomenal. Indeed, up to the year 1881 we took the lead among the countries; but the latest returns place the United States first (with a trade equalling ours and Germany), Germany next, and then ourselves. No other country comes anywhere near this trio, although Belgium and Russia are building great works, and Belgium is becoming more and more a centre for girders as well as for bar iron. If we turn to iron and steel manufactures (excluding, for the present, machinery business) we find that Italy keeps 160,000 persons constantly in employment; France has an army of workmen in the Seine district—rails and plates are specialities; Austria has 300,000 men in work, mostly at cutlery and tool-making; Germany has long been a centre for wires, heavy wares, nails, and locks; and the United Kingdom exports extensively in rails (from Middlesbro' and Barrow), wire, galvanised sheets, and boiler plates. Birmingham and Sheffield remain our chief centres—Wolverhampton, Walsall, Wednesbury, West Bromwich, and Dudley having actually grown out of Birmingham. The nail and chain trade to the year 1865 was largely in the hands of women and children at very low wages, and naturally cost us dearly in

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the heavy death-roll among the juniors. In cutlery also in 1850 it was regularly reported that wages were so bad and hours so long (for men) that they preferred to sweep the streets, and the trade was stagnant till machinery was introduced and made possible the medium and common goods. Since then remarkable development has taken place in all parts of the trade, and has made ample employment. "Low forgers" have gradually disappeared, along with the ornamental article, and the great demand to-day is for the "useful" cutlery for which America had built extensive factories, but has signally failed up to the present to oust us from our market. Sheffield again is pre-eminent and has a world's reputation, notwithstanding also Austria's competition. In the tinsplate trade we see a strange factor. We have read much of the new competition of Russian oil with the American Trust. This threw the latter into the position of needing cheaper "tin" cans, which could only be made from the Welsh tin. America had a "Trust" for tin plates, but this new feature of competition at one blow crushed the Tin Trust, and gave an immense start to our factories in Newport and the district. Between 1887 and 1902 we were able to double our tinsplate trade, putting ourselves in very much the position of thirty years ago, when South Wales had no competitor in the world. In this one instance Carnegie failed! Russia, for the same reason (*i.e.*, for the oil industry), turned her men to making tin cans, but the "dumping" of American and German steel at low prices enabled us to kill their effort, and our tin trade to-day holds every good market; indeed, the Straits Settlements are the only likely competitors in the future, so far as circumstances allow us to judge.

We have been told that mental power is the motor of progress, that men tend to advance in proportion to the mental power expended in progression, and that if we apply this adage to modern civilisation we shall have to admit that one industry not many decades old has been the motor of mankind, spinning the web of our social elevation, and forcing from nature, for us, a store of rich things. That one—engineering—has unquestionably increased our possibilities and functions, has undoubtedly specialised our occupations, and has abundantly reaped for us, giving impulse and action and value to our work; and, while we own to the benefits conferred, we see the same—the engineer—making modern Germany and building future America. A problem, therefore, presents itself in a serious form—what of our vantage ground? Many towns in Britain have risen from the dust of villages at the call of the engineer—Oldham, Bolton, Keighley, Darlington, Crewe, Grantham, and others; and for a while we had

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the world in our grip. France was the first outside rival, and till 1878 ourselves and the French were the exclusive possessors of the engineers' art—machinery. Then the United States began to manufacture agricultural machinery, and to invent, and bit by bit others put their best men to compete with our Stephensons and Cartwrights. To-day we have many rivals, and the industry is scattered broadcast, from Russia, Austria, and Norway to Holland and the United States. Yet our export machinery still keeps a host in full employment, and the labour is among the highest in the wage-earning classes. A significant point of the issue is the acknowledged skill of our average working engineer, and in further proof of this we point to the migration of large firms to England, notably Messrs. Singer's, the Westinghouse Electric Company, and the Thomson-Houston Company. Cheap printing, the cycle industry, and the motor industry are the three latest branches which at the moment are firmly seated in our workshops. It is a remarkable fact that between 1800 and 1900 our trade in machinery multiplied itself *seventy-two times*, and our exports, for instance, to the United States show no diminishment, though every embargo is placed abroad to restrict the importation. The village blacksmith was the first engineer! By and by came his successor with the locomotive and marine engine, *which made the commerce of the world*. If we consider the projects which engineers are discussing now—among others the completion of the Panama Canal, the Cape-Cairo railway, the 20,000-ton ships, and wireless telegraphy—we shall realise that the future becomes a land of dreams compared to the past; yet it is said that the past—take the last twenty years—has seen half the English people at one long job, forging machinery for competitors abroad! English capital goes out to build foreign railways; we have been the universal provider of mechanical production, and the industry itself has subdivided into innumerable parts! There is no brighter outlook for the British workmen, there is no field with greater possibilities, there is no avenue which allows such freedom of thought and skill. The same victory may almost be said of the kindred trade, shipbuilding. Japan tried! Japan now builds in England, with others, and between 1854 and 1902 the tonnage of the ships built in our docks increased three-fold. We build half the ships in the world at the present time, making nine for every one built in Germany, nine for every one in France, and nine for every four in the United States.

When we touch its allied industry, shipping, we have very much the same golden story. London was a centre from early days, Hull was built for shipping, Southampton was one of the first ports with regular lines, and at the dawn of the ocean trade we were the greatest carriers, and remained so because of the

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protection in Napoleonic Europe. Other elements helped us from then on our course, inventions assisted to cheapen freights, and in 1870 came the great collapse of the United States in the Titanic competition with us. The tonnage of vessels which enter our ports is now *twelve-fold* the tonnage of sixty years ago. Antwerp, Amsterdam, New York, all have grown, and all are shipping centres. But stand upon the Rock of Gibraltar, which is said to front the busiest channel on the globe, and you will see the glory of England's maritime! Of every four ships that pass three will wave the British flag! In our ships are nearly 300,000 sailors (double the number of 1850); freights are one-twentieth of land carriage—freights have fallen 80 per cent. since 1872; and we are continuing to do more and more of the carrying of cargoes for other countries on purely foreign journeys; we are adding more and more to the list of British vessels which never come home except for the periodical classification at Lloyds! After ourselves comes the United States, then Germany, then Norway. Between 1850 and 1905 our seamen's wages increased over 50 per cent.; compare this with the workmen on land—say in the building trades—whose wages took from 1820 to 1902 to rise by one-half!

We turn now to the great cities, to the effects of machinery; and it is clear that the inventions and discoveries which during a century have so enormously increased the power of producing wealth have not proved an unmixed good. Their benefits are not merely unequally distributed, nor do we remind ourselves that it is common to have the people of wealth alongside those in deepest poverty, but we also find other injurious tendencies which had escaped us in our dreams of years ago. We find concentrated capital, which we are told is the intensified development of man's primitive notion of exchange. We find that same capital compelling the workman to seek a master—very much as the circumstances which followed the final break-up of the Roman Empire compelled every freeman to seek a lord. We find the workmen independent! but the workman is more and more dependent, and the fierceness of the struggle for existence heightens as each new year rings in. And so on! We turn then to these cities, these cities built by the engineer, these cities which are yet being built by the engineer in far-off lands—the cities of the textile and kindred trades.

In cottons we place Manchester first; it was a large city in 1801, and the hub of the industry. From it Oldham grew, and in time was noted for medium yarns, and Bolton, which acquired a reputation for higher counts, and Bury, Rochdale, Stockport, Hyde, and Glossop, all these grew out of the one centre, all were situated upon the same coal field. Burnley, Blackburn, Preston,

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Wigan, and Nelson were built, and soon took the lead in weaving. Liverpool in those early days was the "supply" stores, importing and distributing the raw material, and it could be said that Nottingham was the only other seat of the trade—and that only for specialities (to-day Chemnitz is its great competitor), unless we include the town of Paisley, which made the fame of thread, and now embraces a world's monopoly. Much happened in the way of invention as time went on, and an expert, writing quite recently upon the general outlook, points to the fact that the present trade is not *one*—as it was a hundred years back—but is an aggregate of highly specialised industries. "Coarse" spinning has become more and more unprofitable. Sateens have replaced some calicoes, substitutes are made for linen and silk, fancy weaving (*i.e.*, the dobbie and jacquard) are increasing. We have had the growth of flannelettes; spinning from cotton waste and "ring" spinning are innovations, and, notwithstanding the last-named two, the prospect of the trade is to go "finer," and to use Egyptian cotton. This—authorities say—will give the English every prospect in the foreign markets, our climate being the best in the world for that quality of work. Beyond all, however, is the admitted fact of the high efficiency of the British workpeople, and it is notorious that new centres formed abroad have been kept going by the introduction of the English; this applies to a striking degree whether we look at the United States, Canada, France, Germany, or Spain. Years back we almost monopolised the cotton industry; to-day our trade is still four-fifths export, notwithstanding the advance in other countries. During twenty-five years we have added 200,000 power-looms; in 1850 we had 20,000,000 spindles, to-day we have double that number, though the cycle of trade tends to decrease the demand for yarns and to increase our manufacture of piece goods. In 1904 the export of the latter recorded the astounding total of 5,592,000,000 yards. The entire value of manufactures exceeds £100,000,000 per year. Compared with competitors our consumption of raw cotton is as follows:—

ANNUAL CONSUMPTION OF RAW COTTON
(MILLION CWTs.).

	1876.	1904.
United Kingdom.....	11·20	13·99
Continent.....	9·17	22·27
U.S.A.	6·13	18·92

Six hundred thousand persons (of whom 60 per cent. are females) are employed in the industry at the centres in Lancashire, Yorkshire, Cheshire, Derby, and Lanarkshire. Since 1860 the

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wages of weavers have increased 10 per cent., and of spinners from 5 to 10 per cent. Going back to 1833, a "fine" spinner earned 35s. 9d. per week, and a "coarse" spinner 22s. 6d.; at the present time spinners' wages vary from £2 to £3, a piecer earns 14s. 6d., a power-loom weaver 15s., and cardroom men 28s.

The United States has 700,000 square miles of cotton fields, and after the Civil War began to manufacture. But, so far, her market for textiles has been confined to home demands and China—exports value £4,000,000—and even that has been built up largely at the expense of children (owing to the non-application of factory laws). In 1880 there were 174,000 persons employed altogether; to-day there are 330,000. In 1880 there were not 1,000,000 spindles in use; to-day there are 5,000,000.

Germany, our great competitor in towelling, and the first possessor of the "Northrop" loom, has fared better. In 1836 60,000 spindles were at work, but progress was not quick till 1875: that year marks the serious entry of Germany into the various branches of the trade. To-day 8,000,000 spindles are in use, 250,000 tons of yarn are consumed annually, the export trade exceeds £12,000,000, and 300,000 workpeople are employed. It will interest readers to be told that the average weekly earnings do not exceed 13s. per person.

In France the Spinners and Doublers' Association have established mills at Lille, and some 400,000 spindles are at work. Other mills are in operation, and it is generally claimed that in the dyeing branch the French workmen are ahead of ours, but we have an astonishing contradiction of this when we see that the large company just mentioned sends many of its yarns to England for that special process. In all the French factories there has recently been a reduction in the working hours, but the operatives still have a longer day than our people, and wages fall quite 10 per cent. lower. Altogether 200,000 persons are employed (against 280,000 in 1866), and the export trade is barely half that of Germany.

Austria has 100,000 people in the industry (which is declining); Brazil is manufacturing blankets, and in other parts of South America there are factories for heavy cottons; Canada is becoming a centre for coloured cottons; Holland has a small industry; Italy is building a trade upon Indian cotton, with 700,000 spindles and 200,000 employes; Switzerland makes a speciality of embroidery (under the old domestic workshop system); and Sweden, after many efforts, has successfully placed some 10,000 workpeople in the various branches.

We come now again to the serious competitors. Take Russia: she started to manufacture because of the discovery that the raw

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material could be grown in the Caucasus and Central Asia. This happened after the liberation of the serfs, and cotton to-day is the leading manufactured product of the country. Back twenty years just 600 factories were going, some 200,000 persons were at work, and goods were made to the value of £23,000,000. To-day some 400,000 people are employed, though the complaint is made that some sixteen persons are required to do work equal to that of three Britishers. In India we have a different class of competitor, a man (or woman) of a different caste and colour; and, strangely, their re-entry into the world of cotton dates from about the same time as Russia's. Bombay is the centre of the factories, and 200,000 persons are there in constant work; but we must add the immense number of others who still cling to the domestic system, and eke out a living at one or other of the cotton manufactures. In twenty years the Indian industry has grown fivefold, and we find a great rival here in the export trade—in particular in yarns. Some 5,000,000 spindles are said to be in use, and the raw material is being more and more cultivated. Herein lies a real, well-founded fear of the Lancashire workman. The Indians are making low-class dhooties out of their own cotton, and are so reducing the cost that some day they may be able to produce cheaper than we can.

Twenty years ago how many of us had heard of the "Land of the Rising Sun?" Japan a generation ago had no cotton industry, she imported; now she has almost stopped importing, and exports! And the wages of the workpeople in these new factories? They average 3s. per week! Yet everyone there seems to thrive, and Germany as well as ourselves is feeling the new competition. In Germany's great branch—that of towelling—Japan is seriously affecting the output, and since the late war is developing China as a huge cotton-growing area. Those who know the island country have no two opinions. Cotton is to be King of the Far East, and we cannot hold still to that long sense of security. Every month sees the Japanese increasing their output; each year sees a higher grade of goods attempted. They have an advantage in the ready production of goods which we lack. They run their mills day and night, the working hours are twelve; there is no break for Sundays—no stop! one ceaseless toil and fight for markets! At the moment the greater part of the output is confined to the coarse counts, the overwhelming proportion of exports being sixteen hand, but the production of much finer work is quickly proceeding. And we taught the Japanese the business! The mill managers studied their business in Lancashire, and they are practical, shrewd, unassuming men. The mills are equipped equal to our own—many of the buildings are exact copies of Lancashire

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concerns. British machinery is universal at present, but factories are being erected for making their own, due to the difficulty which is experienced in obtaining new machinery quickly. The extraordinary success of the Japanese is not entirely one of low wages of workmen and abundant labour. Nominal freight rates is another reason, and another is the help from their own Government, which lends a large share of the initial capital to the undertakings.

The woollen industry, as we have seen, is one of the oldest in this country, and before the days of machinery—which revolutionised it—it was yet the solid foundation of our miniature riches—miniature if measured by the massed wealth of more modern times. The old condition made the trade one of domesticity, one which could be worked in the homes; the combing, carding, spinning, and weaving were all part of the family duties, part of the business of the housewife and the children. The inventions of Hargreave and Arkwright brought the first changes; the use of water power and the power-loom was the next change. Then came Watt's engine, causing new centres to arise, and, as the industry developed and specialised, groups of towns had their particular parts of the trade. Thus Huddersfield, Halifax, Leeds, and Bradford became noted for fine and medium worsted goods and yarns; later, Huddersfield made large quantities of cheap tweeds for ready-made clothing; Dewsbury, Batley, Cleckheaton, and Heckmondwike monopolised the low-class tweeds (made from rags) and developed a blanket industry; Gloucestershire, Trowbridge, and parts of Somerset made fine clothing from merino yarns; Hawick, Peebles, Galashiels, and Langholm, using British and Australasian wools, were making several standard goods; Glasgow, Paisley, Kilmarnock, and Ayr were using worsted yarns for women's dress goods; and the North of Scotland were manufacturing for men's wear. In 1861 hand-loom weaving existed, but from then they were merged with the pattern weavers. In late years the dress coatings of Leeds have found a competitor in Austria; the worsted coatings of Bradford are being made in Norway and Spain; the fancy vestings, of which Galashiels was long the centre, are now made in Italy and France. In Halifax there has been a decline in the number of coating mills; Bradford has lost part of its trade to France; in Keighley, whereas thirty years ago 7,000 looms were employed upon dress goods, there are now 1,500; the West of England has lost further ground, though this time northern centres have captured the shipping trade; Belgium, by a chemical process, obtained a cheaper yarn, supplanting Yorkshire, but it is admitted now that Yorkshire has

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more than replaced this, and the Belgian yarns have found a market in Scotland, when their importation was the salvation of the textile trade—it would be impossible to produce the yarn here, as there is no labour cheap enough; Huddersfield has severely lost in exports to America; and the course of exports in general has been to send more wool and tops and less yarn. In labour there has been a falling off, the demand for labour at better prices in other industries having taken away many weavers, the remaining men earning higher wages. The whole trade is said to fluctuate more violently owing to the quick changes in fashions and taste (this, however, affects the world's woollens trade, not us in particular), and spinning here has largely taken the place of looms and weaving. Against this black record we have the increasing prosperity of the Colne Valley and Hawick districts in new specialities which have absorbed many men from the other declining branches. The number of persons employed in the woollen and worsted industries in the United Kingdom compare:—

	1847.	1874.	1904.
Total Number (male and female)	114,000	276,000	245,000

In other leading countries they number as follows:—

United States ... 135,000, against 106,000 in 1880.

Italy 80,000.

Austria 53,000.

Belgium 1,500. Generally declining.

France Not known, but steadily declining, and industry doomed.

Germany Not known. Began to manufacture in 1839.

The wages at two typical centres are given us, viz.:—

AT HUDDERSFIELD.				AT BRADFORD.			
		1833.	1904.			1833.	1904.
		s. d.	s. d.			s. d.	s. d.
All Men		20 0	26 0	Adult Weavers.....		10 0	15 0
„ Women		14 0	15 0	Machine Combers..		10 6	29 0
				Wool Sorters		21 0	30 0

Owing to the changes in the trade the proportion of women has increased from 15 per cent. in 1838 to 67 per cent. at the present time.

Kidderminster and Wilton have long been renowned for carpets, “Brussels,” till 1894, being the speciality of the first named. The towns of Ayr and Kilmarnock followed in the wake, and now there are factories in Halifax, Rochdale, Glasgow, Paisley, Stirling, and Donegal. To-day we find the trade is importing much of its raw material from Russia, India, Egypt, and Germany, though most of the wool and yarn is still supplied from our own centres.

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In the finished article Turkey, Germany, France, and Belgium send us large quantities, against which we are able to export to many of our own colonies, to Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Holland, and the United States. The last-named started the industry in 1874, but has not succeeded in it to any appreciable extent. France commenced manufacturing in 1870; Germany built its first factory twenty-five years ago (and has developed wonderfully in the dyeing branch); Spain has a large trade, and Japan—with its facility for organisation—has begun an era which seems likely to shake even Turkey from many markets.

We come to the linen and flax industries. In linen the chief seats are Belfast and Dundee, and in Yorkshire, though at one time, when the weaving was done by hand, the trade was spread all over Ireland. Machinery was introduced in 1828, and the power-loom applied from the year 1850 onwards. By the year 1900 it was calculated that upwards of 32,000 of these looms were in use. We hear a lot nowadays of stagnation—especially at Dundee—but it cannot be due to foreign competition (the trade abroad is declining), but arises from two exterior causes, one being the competition of cotton and wool, the other the development of steamships in place of the old sailing ships. The following figures from Lloyds will illustrate the latter point:—

	1852.	1902.
Sailing vessels registered	10,200	2,600

On the other hand, the importation of Continental yarns has helped the weaving, bleaching, and finishing branches; and Germany, Belgium, and France now send their linens here, mostly to Ireland, to be bleached. Turning abroad, we find that Italy is the only country which shows an expanding business, unless we also include Russia—where the trade (begun as an indirect consequence of the American Civil War) is still small.

In our flax industry we find that the past forty years show a drop of 700,000 spindles (meaning a displacement of 30,000 workpeople); the home cultivation of flax has been largely replaced by Russia and Belgium, and we are importing more foreign yarns and more foreign manufactured goods (the flax fields in Ireland in 1875 were 101,000 acres; in 1904 they totalled 44,000, and in Great Britain there are only 800 acres). Russia-Poland is the great source of supply to-day for all markets, Germany, France, Austria, and Belgium having lost ground, like ourselves. Yet in the manufacture we still have a very large number of workpeople, most of whom are in Scotland. Put together, the linen and flax trades give some remarkable results.

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THE LINEN AND FLAX INDUSTRIES.—NUMBER OF PERSONS
IN EMPLOYMENT.

	1880.	1904.
United Kingdom	140,000	105,000
Russia.....	40,000	52,000
Italy	Not known.	250,000
Germany	200,000	100,000
Belgium	Not known.	36,000
France	200,000	120,000
Austria	177,000	52,000

In all other countries the numbers are small.

Jute and hemp have never been staple trades with us; to-day they only employ some 50,000 people; we might almost say that the jute industry only dates fifty years. Up to 1835 it was centred in Bengal, then in Russia, then at Dundee; later, factories were started on the Continent, and increased until India took to the business once more. Bengal is now THE jute market for the world, against which Dundee and the Continent are miniature, and even the United States is helpless. India sends ten-elevenths of our entire demand, and, besides developing the manufacturing branch, is laying out large districts for jute growing.

Hosiery is another small industry, relatively, though fancy goods are in greater demand of late years, and the wool portion has increased. A falling off is apparent, however, in the cotton branch, and this may be due to some extent to the heavier imports of that class of material from Germany:—

GERMANY'S EXPORTS OF COTTON HOSIERY TO THE
UNITED KINGDOM.

	£
Year 1894	210,000
„ 1904	1,092,000

The centres of the trade are Nottingham, Derby, Leicester, Warwick, and Bolton, and our largest customers in export are Australia and the United States, though the output has been stationary for thirty years. A feature of the trade is the almost entire displacement of men and the substitution of girls with machinery. Germany has been declining during many years in the woollen branch, and large numbers of workpeople have left for Canada and the United States; yet there are still some 100,000 persons in the hosiery manufactures (against 40,000 in our own country), and those compete with Troyes (France) and with several places in the United States. Nottingham, happily, has replaced

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any loss in hosiery with its lace factories, and has become the head of the latter industry, along with Long Eaton, Chard, and Ayr. Originally lace was worked in convents on the Continent and at Calais, which became the monopoly market. Years after the town of Nottingham broke that down, and firmly established the lace centre in these islands; and in later years Nottingham gave new life to the industry by the introduction of patent machinery. But our first position only lasted a short period; the silk lace branch begun to fail, and owing to that numbers of our workmen migrated from time to time, many going to the United States (where to-day girls are the great bulk of the employés in lace factories). In recent years both the home trade and the export trade have improved in the cotton branch, and in 1904 the exports valued £3,500,000, against £2,300,000 in 1885. Belgium has still some 30,000 people in this manufacture, all women and girls (against 60,000 in 1846); France makes a speciality of the silk lace, and finds its best markets in America, but the turnover of their whole trade is not one-half of ours; Plauen is the centre in Germany, with its cotton laces, galons, and motifs; there are 60,000 people in employ, and under a new and secret system of manufacture the industry is thriving, doubling itself between 1899 and to-day; Italy remains in the trade with some 6,000 workpeople spread over the northern provinces; Switzerland (St. Gall) does a large business for the United States; Vienna, Barcelona, and St. Petersburg are competitors with us, and Philadelphia has recently opened several factories.

In silks Germany and the United States are our two strongest competitors, though if we measure our adversaries by numbers we should not have placed those two countries in preference to others. For example:—

THE SILK INDUSTRY.—NUMBER OF WORKPEOPLE.

	1881.	1905.
United Kingdom	69,000	40,000
Russia.....	17,000	40,000
France	160,000*
Italy	Not known.	184,000
Switzerland	53,000*
Austria	23,000*
Japan	Not known.	800,000†
United States	31,000	75,000
Germany	77,000	66,000

* The industry has been stationary for many years.

† Only 5 per cent. are males.

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The rearing of silkworms was once confined to the limits of Spain, but that industry is now divided, in order of importance, between Japan, India, China, Italy, Cyprus, France, Belgium, Persia, and Syria. In both Spain and the United Kingdom the raw industry is almost dead, and the United States—trying again—seems likely to repeat the failure of 1850, when great efforts were made in the South. Japan is said to command half the world's raw trade, occupying the same enviable position as the United States has reached in the silk manufactures. Our own manufactures date from the year 1840, and still occupy the same centres—Macclesfield, Congleton, Leek, Ilkeston, Coventry, and Bradford; we except only London and Manchester. Otherwise there have been many changes. The silk poplin has died out; dyes have almost ceased; the “throwing” branch has been largely superseded by “trimmings;” velvets is now a woman's trade, depending, like plushes, upon imported yarns; St. Etienne competes with Coventry, Switzerland with Leek; Japan leads in plain silks, France in many dress cloths. Against these we have the crape trade, which has been opened up at Norwich, Braintree, and Yarmouth, and the large increase in the output of “narrow” goods. The effect of the preceding is reflected in the following table:—

EXPORT OF SILK MANUFACTURES FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM,
IN THOUSAND POUNDS.

	1875.	1904.
Germany	123	71
Belgium	115	49
France	350	354
China	77
Japan	37
United States	199	204
South Africa	30	25
India	346	71
Australia.....	237	90
Totals of Exports to all Countries...	1734	1605

In France, Lyons has long been the chief centre of the industry, but there has been an unmistakable movement of factories to Moscow; this bad feature has been partly balanced, however, by the large number of women who have taken up the trade in their homes. Paris, as everyone knows, is still the silk market for the world, though the French are losing ground, and the exports show a considerable decrease compared with forty years since. In Germany, also, silk manufactures are upon the decline, notwithstanding that

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Crefeld has an important velvet business. In Italy silk is the leading industry; Milan is now in front of Lyons, and 1,600,000 spindles and 8,000 looms are at work; between 1894 and 1901 the trade increased 50 per cent. In Russia there are 200 factories; the Swiss spinners supply the United States with their yarns, and Basle is famous; and if we turn to Japan we see the same quick strides as in other industries; they are hourly gaining on all else, and will assuredly occupy first place. Japan exports!

The boot and shoe trade prior to the year 1846 was in hand-made goods. The sewing machine modified this, and women then began the work in factories. But in 1860 riveted boots were introduced, and the men were then gradually brought back. It was later, when the foreign machines, for instance, for soles, were patented, that the trade was completely staggered, and in 1890 the American manufacturers held us entirely at their mercy. This brought serious reforms at home, and to-day our factories are as well equipped as the American, and in recent years our enterprise has succeeded in making our export trade double the import. The chief centres are Northampton, Leicester, and London, and women form about one-fifth of the total number engaged. The table below shows the position in various countries:—

BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.—NUMBER OF PERSONS
EMPLOYED.

United Kingdom	290,000	France	214,000
Russia	37,000	United States	197,000
Belgium	42,000	Italy	368,000
Germany	388,000	Austria	237,000

The condition of several other important industries can be seen at a glance. The chemical trade is one, and one which is making great strides; for instance, in 1880 our own exports were £8,000,000, to-day they exceed £10,000,000. Altogether 60,000 persons are engaged in it, against 140,000 in the United States (where turpentine is the leading line), 100,000 in Germany (mainly making potash and explosives), and 43,000 in Austria (most of whom are match making). The impetus given this trade of late years has indirectly stimulated the paper, glass, and soap industries, and we cannot pass the last named without adding a word of tribute to its crowning eminence. Britain commands the entire world for soap, excepting only the West Indies. We even buy much of the raw material from America, and send it back in the condition of a finished article, beating the home (American) soap manufacturer. Between 1862 and 1902 our turnover increased fourfold, and the home consumption of 1902 equalled that of the twenty-three years

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1833-1855. In paper, ourselves and Germany are the two great rivals, although every country has its mills now—including Japan. The extent of operations can be gathered from these figures:—

THE PAPER TRADE.—NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.

United Kingdom	74,000*	France.....	52,000
Germany.....	85,000†	Russia	47,000
United States.....	72,000	Austria	28,000

* Great replacement of men by women.

† The paper hanging branch is declining.

This again provides the raw material for the printing industry, which in the United Kingdom engages some 150,000 workpeople.

The other industry which we mention is that of confectionery. In connection with this we must touch upon sugar, as Germany, Austria, Hungary, and France all produce it largely, but the anomaly is that Great Britain has the incomparable confectionery trade. From the year 1855, on the introduction of good refined sugar on the Continent, we built up our confectionery trade, jam trade, and the like. Every year sees immense leaps, and in its train the trades of tins, boxes, and bottles have had a new era of prosperity. The whole point hinges on machinery. In the old days of "toffee" and "barley sugar" the cost of labour in producing a ton of the article was £10; to-day a ton of sweets can be produced for 20s. Confectionery has provided a new field for our engineer! Electricity has been the motive power!

What are the figures of population in leading countries?

POPULATION OF LEADING COMMERCIAL COUNTRIES.

	Millions.
United Kingdom.....	44
France	40
Germany	58
Austria and Hungary.....	46
Italy and Switzerland	36
Spain and Portugal	24
Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, and Holland..	23
United States	80
Japan	40

Population in ordinary circumstances would double itself in sixty years, but one main factor which disturbs a general statement of this description is the emigration to other countries. Italy annually loses some 130,000 of its people, the United Kingdom 150,000, Germany 30,000, Austria 70,000, and Spain 120,000; figures for Russia are unavailable, but the exodus is extensive and continued, and at the present time the great flow is not, as popularly thought,

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to the United States, but to South America. A parallel question for us is the "congestion" of population, and an aspect of this can be seen in the following:—

100,000-PERSON CITIES.

Year 1850—United Kingdom, 11; Germany, 6; France, 5; Russia, 5.
 „ 1900— „ „ 39; „ 33; „ 15; „ 16.

UNITED KINGDOM.

Year 1861—Urban Population, 55%; Rural Population, 45% } The great move-
 „ 1901— „ „ 77%; „ „ 23% } ment is towards
 the seaboard.

Actually for the last thirty years the agricultural population of France and Germany has also been falling.

Turning to the various trades we are given the under-mentioned:—

Per 10,000 of Population	UNITED KINGDOM.		GERMANY.		UNITED STATES.	
	1875.	1901.	1875.	1901.	1875.	1901.
Agriculture.....	711	495	1780	1550	1517	1348
Building	239	273	209	262	133	164
Mining	158	202	66	83	50	77
Textile	313	243	178	134	66	72
Iron and Steel Manuf's .	239	301	171	215	91	152
Paper, Pottery, & Leather	160	166	178	213	79	96

In the hours of labour Germany is the worst, then France, United States, and ourselves. On the point of female labour these are a few of the minor industries in which women have replaced men, viz.:—

MINOR INDUSTRIES IN WHICH FEMALES HAVE REPLACED MEN.

Brass Lathe Burnishing.	Military Ornament Work.
Bookbinding.	Piano Frame Making.
Chain Making.	Spectacle Grinding.
Cycle Saddle Frame Making.	Tailoring.
Manufacture of Corset Fasteners.	Tinplate Trade.
Enamel Saucepan Work.	Umbrella Building.
Harness Stitching.	Whip Trade.
Layers on (Printing).	Wire Mattress Weaving.

In the United Kingdom nearly 700,000 females were employed in 1901.

Altogether the average yearly income per head of population is now as follows:—

	£		£
United States	45	Germany	18
United Kingdom	33	Austria	10
Norway	26	Italy	9
France	26	Belgium	19

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If we place ourselves in comparison for export results we find that the United Kingdom is first with £350,000,000; the United States next, £300,000,000; then Germany, £200,000,000; and France, £179,000,000. Germany still obtains 24 per cent. of her manufactures from us, France 28 per cent., and the United States 36 per cent. For every person Germany imports goods valued at £4. 10s. 7d.; France, £4. 5s.; and the United States, £2. 1s. 11d.; against that Germany exports to the value of £3. 10s. 7d.; France, £3. 14s. 11d.; and the United States, £3. 1s. 3d. Our own imports are 42 per cent. food, 33 per cent. raw material, and the balance—25 per cent.—in manufactured articles. From these many avenues we see that the people of various countries have been enabled to make the under-mentioned deposits in their savings banks:—

ALL SAVINGS BANKS.—DEPOSITS PER HEAD.

	1880.	1903. ^s		1880.	1903.
	£	£		£	£
Denmark	7	16	Austria	2	5
New Zealand	2	9	United Kingdom ...	2	5
Germany	3	8	France	1	4
Australia	3	8	Belgium	1	4
Norway.....	4	8	Canada	1	3
United States	3	7	Holland	1	3
Sweden	2	5	Italy	1	3
			Russia.....	...	1

There were only half the percentage of paupers last year in the United Kingdom compared with 1854!

The continued evolution in industry: what has been, and will be, its effect on the labour movement? Whither are we all tending? We have seen the records of the past, which point the astonishing, but seemingly inevitable, march of civilisation to the West. We have traced the glories of nations which were once supreme and held the trade of the then known world. The Egyptian, Assyrian, Phœnician, Greek, Roman, Venetian, Genoese, the Hanse-men, and the Netherlanders each held sway in turn from the dawn of history to the rise of our own majestic capital—London. If we search deeper we shall find that all of these ruling powers were descended from the sturdy Asiatics, men who had gone to the West! And by the very same law to-day the stream of all migration moves westward: ever westward!

“Silver sails all out of the West,
Under the silvery moon.”

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Has the time arrived when we have to own that the Britain of yesterday is being left behind in the race of conquerors? when the best interests of labour would be to seek—as many are doing—their homes in the lands beyond the seas? The era of the industrial revolution changed the ways of the world! The past henceforth had no comparison with the present, and our own country was lifted at one master-stroke till all the nations were our debtors. We ruled oceans with our maritime, our financiers and traders were at every point of the globe. We magnificently held—increasing our hold as years went on, and at one time it looked as if no other nation could ever challenge the gigantic industries of these islands. The opening of China in 1840 was the first break. It gave that great chance which was to be reaped by futurity. But forty years back were a series of other events which have had a far-reaching effect on the present circumstances. Russia then began with free men, India and Egypt were opened out in the cotton industry, Germany was a nation for the first time, France settled down to a new path, the United States began seriously in manufactures and in agriculture, Japan entered the nations! Italy was henceforth a commercial country, and the Suez Canal had been opened! The sum of these several events had told us simply this: the time was ripe for the engineer abroad, and from that day we had competitors in our own special sphere of factory domain. Nearly twenty years later Argentina was opened up, which was another serious factor, as it stood for the awakening of South America! The effect of all these we have seen in these pages. Agriculture has been gradually leaving those countries which specialised with the workshop and engine. The older countries, where the congestion of population was necessarily greatest, found that their condition was improved by leaving the old ways and the land, and turning to the machine and the great towns: labour could earn more! People got richer, and they preferred to “exchange” grain rather than to grow it; and Providence has now found the grain areas in those parts which are new and thinly peopled. Yet whether this will be for the betterment of humanity is a grave problem, and the development of the lesser branches of agriculture—dairying, fruit-growing, &c.—is a partial set-off to the large depletion of rural homes.

In minerals we see that Chili has given place to the United States and Spain; in lead Spain still stands unrivalled; in oil—the new industry—Russia and the United States have immeasurable supplies. The coal centre of the universe can be said to be seated still in Britain, although the output of the United States slightly exceeds our own. *But we have 200,000 men who are always*

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working upon export orders (and of the total value quite 75 per cent. represents wages). The reason of this phenomenal trade has been roughly stated, but we can very well illustrate the great benefit which it confers doubly on labour by taking the case of Argentina. In the ordinary way coal should be sent there from Virginia, but our British policy of free trade makes it certain for our shipowners to obtain a freight out (with coal) and back (with food); American shipowners, however, owing to the protective policy in their country, would have to return empty, and because of this serious aspect they have been unable to quote a freight on the coal which could near compare with our own. The point is that we are keeping some part of the 200,000 colliers in constant work for Argentina, and on the other hand we are bringing in cheap food, which in turn acts for the benefit of all the people of these islands. Taken altogether our mining industry is keeping pace with any other country in the world, and our wages are only exceeded by those in the United States, where other conditions are said to nullify any difference on that head. In the iron industry we have seen one remarkable fact which must have told heavily; by the application of several inventions the out-turn per furnace has increased nearly ninefold! Doubtless this has made possible the enormous development of railways and steamboats, and the creating of our large hardware industry. For the ore we are told to anticipate an exhaustion at our principal fields in a quarter of a century, and should this be correct, and no new mines opened out, we shall likely enough go to Canada or Germany. But we think we need look with no alarm at so black a prospect. Yet even if the worst happens, what will be the sequel? We shall go elsewhere for our ore, and, instead of our workmen labouring in the bowels of the earth, they will be employed at some work upon the surface; if we stop to reason this it must be so, as obviously any imports would want paying for, and to do this we should be required to send some other goods back in exchange. In the akin-industry, machinery, we have been commended upon the excellence of the work of our people, and herein lies the only sure road to continued success. The point for us all is this: will the engineer of to-morrow be able to compete with his competitor who is now being trained by the technical school of, for example, Germany? We have long had a monopoly of the engineer, and he has got to the position of holding a trade which is highly skilled and which has been kept efficient by a strong trades union. But will this suffice? There is no firmer ground than here for a plea for national consideration to the nation's future. Our engineering trade is immense; we forge machinery for all the world! Are we to let this commerce pass us in our lethargy? Shipbuilding fears no rivals; but shipbuilding

THE CONTINUED INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION :

is in much the same position as engineering, and though we hold the markets to-day, *it is owing to the efforts of our fathers*, and for our children we must seek and teach, because we can depend upon it that unless we retain a high standard of workmanship (coupled in this instance with a free trade policy) we shall not compete for ever with diligent and hopeful adversaries, and the march of civilisation will be to our disadvantage and to the disintegration of labour. And in the filling of ships, what? Is there any need to use further words upon our wonderful record of shipping? Sufficient will it be to just read back a few pages, and say that to now the industries reviewed point the conclusion that our shipping and shipbuilding, our machinery and engineering business, iron manufactures, mining, and our coal trade, all these indicate no step back, but the possibility of further advancement; at any rate, our workman has time to pause, and think! And in one other, agriculture, can we not redeem much in that sphere for that permanent army of people who continually fall into the avenue of unemployment and want?

Turning now to our factories we see the tendency in cotton manufactures to do a better class of work at home, and although Germany and the United States are severely competing, and in the ordinary shifting of industry they have attained a place, their efforts have not seriously displaced our wares. Japan, beyond question, will be the Cotton King of the East, and we predict that Japan and India at no far future date will dominate in the coarser work, leaving the 600,000 workpeople in Britain upon the finer (and better paid) goods. We have to be thankful for the fact that our climate is the more suitable as the cotton process gets "finer;" this is a peculiarity which cannot be altered; it is one of those inalienable gifts of Nature to us which no amount of knowledge elsewhere can move. Against this there is just one outside factor. Have we sufficiently considered the prospects of the Panama Canal if eventually opened? Lancashire's humidity arises from the Gulf Stream, but if the opening of the Panama Canal were a serious deterrent to that, and the course of it actually diverted, would our cotton industry be gone at one blow? Would Lancashire be a centre some day for icebergs and don the snow-capped peaks which make the pictures of the North?

However, this may be a little too imaginative for our purposes, and we will move to the woollen industry. We see many changes in that since the days when we first obtained the start, and controlled near and far. Seemingly the United States has taken much of the trade; Austria, Norway, and Spain compete, and France and Italy have done us harm. But we should not say that the losses have

ITS BEARING ON THE LABOUR QUESTION.

arisen from any causes outside those of ordinary evolutions; we—forty million people—could scarcely expect to hold all markets till Time was no more, especially as the trade requires no chosen atmosphere, like cotton. Almost every nation from 1870 was turning its attention to employing some of its people in such manufactures; it was in “better” work than was being done, and meant a higher standard of comfort for their workpeople. In a word, the trade at home seems one in the future for females and for spinning, and, as we said, there has been a falling off in males, due, perhaps, to the trend of the industry, but also to the astonishing progress in other trades which have attracted the men by the higher prospects of wages and promotion. There is an outstanding fact, however, that though thirty years have gone by we still have an immense woollen industry, and the hope of the future must lie in the direction of new ideas and in specialities, such as those which once saved Huddersfield. We were reading just now of technical schools abroad, and we can safely repeat at this juncture the urgency of some such training at home for our people in the future woollen trade. What the trade will want is *brains*!

In the linen industry we see conditions attributable solely to the growth of two other home industries, and there is not much that can be further said except that our people are doing the “better” work, and the Continent the rougher. Flax and jute are small trades. In hosiery, the branches of the industry have been reversed between ourselves and Germany; and in the lace trade we are holding our own. Silk, undoubtedly, will pass to Japan, and France and Switzerland must fail in the competition. Because of this Coventry and Leek will likely enough regain their position, and the industry be retained upon new goods. But why trouble even if that be not so, when we have ample other industries which pay better, and in which is a better future for the home workman? Look at the prospects in the boot trade, in chemicals, soap, and confectionery. Look at the possibilities in electricity, and in the motor trade.

Summing all wages of all workpeople, we shall find that there has been an increase of 10 per cent. since 1870—that is, in our own country. In other countries, the United States shows an advance of 25 per cent., Italy of 20 per cent., Austria of 60 per cent., Germany of 45 per cent., France of 28 per cent., and so on; and on the face of these facts there would seem some reason to doubt our continued supremacy. But all—excepting the United States—started from a much lower level than ourselves, and in the United States other factors reverse the position so that a workman there requires to do 225 days’ work every year to cover the cost of

THE CONTINUED INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION.

the necessaries of his life—this is 20 more than the working man here. So that we can still trust and hope; we can still check the tendency of civilisation to the West; we can still delay the hour which is foretold. And if we look at Germany in Asia Minor, what does this forebode? It means simply that Germany wants to hold the door-way between Asia and Europe, and because of this England is pushing its way into the Persian Gulf. The moves are merely political, and can seemingly have no striking effect upon trade and upon the wages of our working people. We have studied sufficient here to recognise that trade—generally—must follow *brains*, and the development of our electrical and motor industries, the shifting of our people into towns, the building up of new industries, the keeping of our position (though others have tried to pass)—these are but parts of the great wheel of commerce. That our people may progress and be more contented, that their days may be fuller and happier, that our nation may stand as the glory of progress and enlightenment, that these things may be realised and not imagined, let us seek truth and remedies, not use our hours in perplexing anomalies, nor mistake the inevitable transition of industry for its seeming decay. We are first to-day; by education, efficiency, and character we may hold to-morrow.



Co-operative Societies in the United Kingdom.

STATISTICS SHOWING THE POSITION AND PROGRESS OF THE
CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT FROM 1862 TO 1904.

THESE tables have been brought up to date on the basis of the Annual Returns by Societies to the Registrar of Friendly Societies, and corrected by the more recent returns to the Co-operative Union.

The tables refer to the United Kingdom, England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, and give the comparison between the figures of 1904 and those of ten years ago. We have also inserted below the figures relating to profits devoted to Education.

CO-OPERATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM DURING 1894 AND 1904.

	1894.		1904.		INCREASE PER CENT.
Societies (making returns) ..No.	1,930	..	2,664	..	38
Members.....No.	1,373,004	..	2,320,116	..	69
Capital (share and loan)	£19,820,745	..	43,592,938	..	120
Sales	£52,110,800	..	96,263,328	..	85
Profits	£ 4,928,838	..	9,791,740	..	99
Profits devoted to Education..£	36,553	..	79,693	..	118

CO-OPERATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES DURING 1894 AND 1904.

	1894.		1904.		INCREASE PER CENT.
Societies (making returns) ..No.	1,525	..	1,907	..	25
Members.....No.	1,139,535	..	1,880,712	..	65
Capital (share and loan)	£16,189,717	..	33,809,720	..	109
Sales	£11,731,223	..	73,713,727	..	77
Profits	£ 3,841,723	..	7,278,535	..	89
Profits devoted to Education..£	32,508	..	66,356	..	104

CO-OPERATION IN SCOTLAND DURING 1894 AND 1904.

	1894.		1904.		INCREASE PER CENT.
Societies (making returns) ..No.	355	..	355
Members.....No.	229,409	..	377,446	..	64
Capital (share and loan)	£ 3,536,516	..	9,346,617	..	160
Sales	£10,115,126	..	21,019,531	..	108
Profits	£ 1,081,304	..	2,493,538	..	131
Profits devoted to Education..£	4,050	..	13,335	..	229

CO-OPERATION IN IRELAND DURING 1894 AND 1904.

	1894.		1904.	
Societies (making returns) ..No.	50	..	402	..
Members.....No.	4,060	..	61,958	..
Capital (share and loan)	£ 34,512	..	436,601	..
Sales	£ 264,451	..	1,530,070	..
Profits	£ 5,811	..	19,667	..
Profits devoted to Education.....£	2	..

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,
TABLE (1).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS
 (Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NO. OF SOCIETIES			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.		Sales.	Net Profit.
	Registered in the Year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.		
					£	£	£	£
1862	a454	f68	332	90,341	428,376	54,499	2,333,523	165,562
1863	51	73	381	111,163	579,902	76,738	2,673,778	216,005
1864	146	110	394	b129,429	684,182	89,122	2,836,606	224,460
1865	101	182	403	b124,659	819,367	107,263	3,373,847	279,226
1866	163	240	441	b144,072	1,046,310	118,023	4,462,676	372,307
1867	137	192	577	171,897	1,475,199	136,734	6,001,153	398,578
1868	190	93	673	211,781	1,711,643	177,706	7,122,360	424,420
1869	65	133	754	229,861	1,816,672	179,054	7,353,363	438,101
1870	67	153	748	248,108	2,035,626	197,029	8,201,685	553,435
1871	56	235	746	262,188	2,305,951	215,453	9,463,771	666,399
1872	141	113	935	330,550	2,969,573	371,541	13,012,120	936,715
1873	226	138	983	387,765	3,581,405	496,830	15,639,714	1,110,658
1874	130	232	1,031	412,733	3,905,093	587,342	16,374,053	1,228,038
1875	117	285	1,170	480,076	4,403,547	849,990	18,499,901	1,429,090
1876	82	177	1,167	508,067	5,141,390	919,772	19,921,054	1,743,980
1877	67	246	1,148	529,081	5,445,449	1,073,275	21,390,447	1,924,551
1878	52	121	1,185	560,993	5,647,443	1,145,717	21,402,219	1,837,660
1879	52	146	1,151	572,621	5,755,522	1,496,343	20,382,772	1,857,790
1880	69	100	1,183	604,063	6,232,093	1,341,290	23,248,314	c1,868,599
1881	66	..	1,240	643,617	6,940,173	1,483,583	24,945,063	1,981,109
1882	67	115	1,288	687,158	7,591,241	1,622,431	27,541,212	2,155,398
1883	55	170	1,291	729,957	7,921,356	1,577,086	29,336,028	2,434,996
1884	78	63	1,400	797,950	8,646,188	1,830,836	30,424,101	2,723,794
1885	84	50	1,441	850,659	9,211,259	1,945,834	31,305,910	2,988,690
1886	83	65	1,486	894,488	9,747,452	2,160,090	32,730,745	3,070,111
1887	87	145	1,516	967,828	10,344,216	2,253,576	34,483,771	3,190,309
1888	100	140	1,592	1,011,258	10,946,219	2,452,887	37,793,903	3,454,974
1889	93	123	1,621	1,071,089	11,687,912	2,923,711	40,674,673	3,734,546
1890	122	159	1,647	1,140,573	12,783,629	3,169,155	43,731,669	4,275,617
1891	117	122	1,684	1,207,511	13,847,705	3,393,394	49,024,171	4,718,532
1892	127	24	1,791	1,284,843	14,647,707	3,773,616	51,060,854	4,743,352
1893	106	59	1,825	1,340,318	15,318,665	3,874,954	51,803,836	4,610,657
1894	113	61	1,930	1,373,004	15,756,064	4,064,681	52,110,800	4,928,838
1895	123	113	1,966	1,430,340	16,749,826	4,581,573	55,100,249	5,389,071
1896	128	134	2,010	1,534,824	18,236,040	4,786,331	59,951,635	5,990,023
1897	126	165	2,065	1,627,135	19,510,007	h9,137,077	64,956,049	6,535,861
1898	182	227	2,130	1,703,098	20,671,110	h9,914,226	68,523,969	6,939,276
1899	152	298	2,183	1,787,576	22,340,533	h11,025,341	73,533,686	7,529,477
1900	117	356	2,174	1,886,252	24,156,310	h12,010,771	81,020,428	8,177,822
1901	153	332	2,239	1,980,441	25,697,099	h13,059,032	85,872,706	8,670,576
1902	253	335	2,466	2,103,264	27,063,405	h14,034,140	89,772,923	9,123,976
1903	225	381	2,523	2,215,873	28,200,869	h13,992,675	93,384,799	9,338,626
1904	202	323	2,664	2,320,116	29,337,392	h14,255,546	96,263,328	9,791,740
					Totals ..		1,529,039,864	144,172,945

a The Total Number Registered to the end of 1862. b Reduced by 18,278 for 1864, 23,927 for 1865, and were included in the returns from the Retail Societies. c Estimated on the basis of the returns made to sum to be Investments other than in Trade. f Estimated. g Investments and other Assets. h Loans

UNITED KINGDOM.

for each Year, from 1862 to 1904 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN				Amount of Reserve Fund.	Year.
		Industrial and Provident Societies, and other than Trade.	Joint-stock Companies.	Profit Devoted to Education.			
£	£	£	£	£	£		
127,749	1862	
167,620	1863	
163,147	1864	
181,766	1865	
219,746	1866	
255,923	583,539	d494,429	3,203	32,629	1867	
294,451	671,165	137,397	166,398	3,636	33,109	1868	
280,116	784,847	117,586	178,367	3,814	38,630	1869	
311,910	912,102	126,736	204,876	4,275	52,990	1870	
346,415	1,029,446	145,004	262,594	5,097	66,631	1871	
479,130	1,383,063	318,477	382,846	6,696	93,601	1872	
556,540	1,627,402	370,402	449,039	7,107	102,722	1873	
594,455	1,781,053	418,301	522,081	7,949	116,829	1874	
686,178	2,095,675	667,825	553,454	10,879	241,930	1875	
1,279,856	2,664,042	1876	
1,381,961	2,648,282	1877	
1,494,607	2,609,729	1878	
1,537,138	2,857,214	1879	
1,429,160	2,880,076	e3,447,347	13,910	1880	
....	3,053,333	13,825	1881	
1,690,107	3,452,942	e4,281,264	14,778	1882	
1,826,804	3,709,555	e4,497,718	16,788	1883	
1,936,485	3,575,836	e4,550,890	19,154	1884	
2,082,539	3,729,492	e5,433,120	20,712	1885	
1,800,347	4,072,765	e3,858,940	19,878	1886	
1,960,374	4,360,836	e4,491,483	21,380	1887	
2,045,391	4,556,593	e5,233,859	24,245	1888	
2,182,775	4,795,182	e5,833,278	25,455	1889	
2,361,319	5,141,750	e6,958,787	27,587	1890	
2,621,091	5,838,370	e6,394,867	30,087	1891	
2,902,994	6,175,287	e6,952,906	32,753	1892	
3,181,818	6,314,715	e7,089,689	32,677	1893	
3,267,288	5,905,442	e7,174,736	36,553	1894	
3,478,036	6,333,102	e7,880,602	41,491	1895	
3,786,063	6,844,018	g13,929,329	46,895	1896	
j3,074,420	7,602,211	g14,278,094	50,302	1897	
j3,218,102	7,506,686	g15,753,086	52,129	1898	
j3,461,508	8,400,099	g17,203,236	56,562	1899	
j3,814,209	9,284,663	g18,788,895	65,699	1900	
j4,027,696	9,606,317	g20,466,113	68,258	1901	
j4,400,990	10,155,918	g21,305,360	73,753	1902	
j4,553,463	10,456,634	g22,127,521	77,654	1903	
j4,851,469	10,779,803	g22,968,250	79,693	1904	

30,921 for 1865, being the number of "Individual Members" returned by the Wholesale Society, and which the Central Co-operative Board for 1881. *d* Includes Joint-stock Companies. *e* The return states this and other Creditors. *j* Exclusive of Share Interest.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,
TABLE (2).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS
(Compiled from Official

YEAR.	No. of Societies			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.		Sales.	Net Profit.
	Registered in the Year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.		
					£	£	£	£
1862	a454	f68	332	90,341	423,376	54,499	2,333,523	165,562
1863	51	73	381	111,163	579,902	76,738	2,673,778	216,005
1864	146	110	394	b129,429	684,182	89,122	2,836,606	224,460
1865	101	182	403	b124,659	819,367	107,263	3,373,847	279,226
1866	163	240	441	b144,072	1,046,310	118,023	4,462,676	372,307
1867	137	192	577	171,897	1,475,199	136,734	6,001,153	398,578
1868	190	93	673	211,781	1,711,643	177,706	7,122,360	424,420
1869	65	133	754	229,861	1,816,672	179,054	7,353,363	438,101
1870	67	153	748	248,108	2,035,626	197,029	8,201,685	553,435
1871	56	235	746	262,188	2,305,951	215,453	9,463,771	666,399
1872	138	104	927	339,986	2,968,758	371,531	12,992,345	935,551
1873	225	135	978	387,301	3,579,962	496,740	15,623,553	1,109,795
1874	128	227	1,026	412,252	3,903,608	586,972	16,358,278	1,227,226
1875	116	283	1,163	479,284	4,793,909	844,620	18,484,382	1,427,365
1876	82	170	1,165	507,857	5,140,219	919,762	19,909,699	1,742,501
1877	66	240	1,144	528,576	5,437,959	1,073,265	21,374,013	1,922,361
1878	52	119	1,181	560,703	5,645,883	1,145,707	21,385,646	1,836,371
1879	51	146	1,145	573,084	5,747,907	1,496,143	20,365,602	1,856,308
1880	67	100	1,177	603,541	6,224,271	1,341,190	23,231,677	c1,866,839
1881	62	..	1,230	642,783	6,937,284	1,483,583	24,926,005	1,979,576
1882	66	113	1,276	685,981	7,581,739	1,622,253	27,509,055	2,153,699
1883	55	165	1,282	728,905	7,912,216	1,576,845	29,303,441	2,432,621
1884	76	57	1,391	896,845	8,636,960	1,830,624	30,392,112	2,722,103
1885	84	47	1,431	849,616	9,202,138	1,945,508	31,273,156	2,986,155
1886	82	62	1,474	893,153	9,738,278	2,159,746	32,684,244	3,067,436
1887	84	140	1,504	966,403	10,333,069	2,252,672	34,437,879	3,187,902
1888	100	130	1,579	1,009,773	10,935,031	2,452,158	37,742,429	3,451,577
1889	89	118	1,608	1,069,396	11,677,286	2,923,506	40,618,060	3,731,966
1890	110	151	1,631	1,138,780	12,776,733	3,168,788	43,667,363	4,273,010
1891	95	108	1,656	1,205,244	13,832,158	3,390,076	48,921,697	4,714,298
1892	118	14	1,753	1,282,103	14,627,570	3,766,737	50,902,681	4,739,771
1893	98	42	1,784	1,336,731	15,297,470	3,867,305	51,577,727	4,606,811
1894	101	43	1,880	1,368,944	15,732,061	4,054,172	51,846,349	4,923,027
1895	78	70	1,895	1,423,632	16,726,623	4,570,116	54,758,400	5,382,862
1896	92	87	1,908	1,525,283	18,197,828	4,766,244	59,461,852	5,983,655
1897	73	99	1,930	1,613,038	19,466,155	h9,081,368	64,362,943	6,529,136
1898	73	98	1,955	1,682,286	20,618,822	h9,837,103	67,869,094	6,931,704
1899	84	116	1,994	1,763,430	22,276,641	h10,928,770	72,743,708	7,516,114
1900	63	98	2,006	1,861,458	24,088,713	h11,905,132	80,124,319	8,163,390
1901	107	30	2,073	1,956,469	25,620,298	h12,947,182	84,941,764	8,653,300
1902	143	32	2,180	2,058,660	26,937,475	h13,831,354	88,420,435	9,108,860
1903	129	46	2,190	2,161,747	28,057,210	h13,754,070	91,921,507	9,321,688
1904	154	28	2,262	2,258,158	29,177,480	h13,978,857	94,733,258	9,772,073
					Totals ..		1,518,687,435	143,995,544

a The Total Number Registered to the end of 1862. b Reduced by 18,278 for 1864, 23,927 for 1865, and were included in the returns from the Retail Societies. c Estimated on the basis of the returns made to sum to be Investments other than in Trade. f Estimated. g Investments and other Assets. h Loans

GREAT BRITAIN.

for each Year, from 1862 to 1904 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
		Industrial and Provident Societies, and other than Trade.	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	
127,749	1862
167,620	1863
163,147	1864
181,766	1865
219,746	1866
255,923	583,539	d494,429	3,203	32,629	1867
294,451	671,165	137,397	166,398	3,636	33,109	1868
280,116	784,847	117,586	178,367	3,814	38,630	1869
311,910	912,102	126,736	204,876	4,275	52,990	1870
346,415	1,029,446	145,004	262,594	5,097	66,631	1871
477,846	1,383,063	318,477	382,846	6,696	93,601	1872
555,766	1,627,402	370,402	449,039	7,107	102,722	1873
593,548	1,781,053	418,301	522,081	7,949	116,829	1874
685,118	2,094,325	667,825	553,454	10,879	241,930	1875
1,279,392	2,664,042	1876
1,381,285	2,647,309	1877
1,493,842	2,609,729	1878
1,536,282	2,857,214	1879
1,428,303	2,878,832	e3,429,935	17,407	13,910	1880
....	3,051,665	13,822	1881
1,689,223	3,450,481	e4,281,243	14,778	1882
1,818,880	3,706,978	e4,490,477	16,788	1883
1,933,297	3,572,226	e4,543,388	19,154	1884
2,080,427	3,726,756	e5,425,319	20,712	1885
1,797,696	4,068,831	e3,858,451	19,878	1886
1,957,873	4,354,857	e4,490,674	21,380	1887
2,041,566	4,550,743	e5,233,349	24,238	1888
2,178,961	4,789,170	e5,832,435	25,455	1889
2,357,647	5,136,580	e6,958,131	27,587	1890
2,617,200	5,832,573	e6,390,827	30,087	1891
2,897,117	6,168,947	e6,946,321	32,753	1892
3,174,460	6,309,624	e7,076,071	32,677	1893
3,256,156	5,898,804	e7,169,710	36,553	1894
3,465,905	6,323,781	e7,876,837	41,491	1895
3,767,651	6,828,943	g13,895,043	46,895	1896
j3,061,934	7,582,623	g14,246,571	50,299	1897
j3,201,894	7,490,945	g15,699,161	52,118	1898
j3,443,627	8,380,722	g17,136,035	56,528	1899
j3,791,397	9,264,705	g18,714,549	65,668	1900
j4,002,960	9,577,474	g20,383,660	68,211	1901
j4,358,590	10,110,723	g21,183,650	73,713	1902
j4,515,553	10,409,588	g21,989,909	77,654	1903
j4,808,149	10,729,084	g22,805,618	79,691	1904

30,921 for 1866, being the number of "Individual Members" returned by the Wholesale Society, and which the Central Co-operative Board for 1881. d Includes Joint-stock Companies. e The return states this and other Creditors. j Exclusive of Share Interest.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,
TABLE (3).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS
(Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NO. OF SOCIETIES			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.		Sales.	Net Profit.
	Registered in the Year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.		
					£	£	£	£
1862	454	68	332	90,341	428,376	54,499	2,333,523	165,562
1863	51	73	381	111,163	579,902	76,738	2,673,778	216,005
1864	146	110	394	129,429	684,182	89,122	2,836,606	224,460
1865	101	182	403	124,659	819,367	107,263	3,373,847	279,226
1866	163	240	441	144,072	1,046,310	118,023	4,462,676	372,307
1867	137	192	577	171,897	1,475,199	136,734	6,001,153	398,578
1868	190	93	673	211,781	1,711,643	177,706	7,122,360	424,420
1869	65	133	754	229,861	1,816,672	179,054	7,353,363	438,101
1870	67	153	748	248,108	2,035,626	197,029	8,201,685	553,435
1871	56	235	746	262,188	2,305,951	215,453	9,463,771	666,399
1872	113	66	749	301,157	2,786,965	344,509	11,397,225	809,237
1873	186	69	790	340,930	3,344,104	431,808	13,651,127	959,493
1874	113	177	810	357,821	3,653,582	498,052	14,295,762	1,072,139
1875	98	237	926	420,024	4,470,857	742,073	16,206,570	1,250,570
1876	72	113	937	444,547	4,825,642	774,809	17,619,247	1,541,384
1877	58	186	896	461,666	5,092,958	916,955	18,697,788	1,680,370
1878	48	65	963	490,584	5,264,855	965,499	18,719,081	1,583,925
1879	40	106	937	504,117	5,374,179	1,324,970	17,816,037	1,598,156
1880	53	62	953	526,686	5,806,545	1,124,795	20,129,217	1,600,000
1881	50	..	971	552,353	6,431,553	1,205,145	21,276,850	1,657,564
1882	51	82	1,012	593,262	7,058,025	1,293,595	23,607,809	1,814,375
1883	42	158	990	622,871	7,281,448	1,203,764	24,776,980	2,036,826
1884	64	48	1,079	672,780	7,879,686	1,359,007	25,600,250	2,237,210
1885	73	47	1,114	717,019	8,364,367	1,408,941	25,858,065	2,419,615
1886	67	61	1,141	751,117	8,793,068	1,551,989	26,747,174	2,476,651
1887	73	139	1,170	813,537	9,269,422	1,598,420	28,221,988	2,542,884
1888	94	125	1,244	850,020	9,793,852	1,743,890	30,350,048	2,766,131
1889	81	112	1,268	897,841	10,424,169	2,038,100	33,016,341	2,981,543
1890	103	149	1,290	955,393	11,380,210	2,196,364	35,367,102	3,393,991
1891	88	108	1,313	1,008,448	12,253,427	2,260,686	39,617,376	3,781,254
1892	106	12	1,404	1,073,739	12,848,024	2,487,499	40,827,931	3,701,402
1893	92	40	1,432	1,119,210	13,400,837	2,453,723	41,483,346	3,592,856
1894	96	41	1,525	1,139,535	13,668,938	2,520,779	41,731,223	3,841,723
1895	68	69	1,530	1,191,766	14,511,314	2,803,917	44,003,888	4,194,876
1896	88	84	1,554	1,264,763	15,620,803	2,952,740	47,331,384	4,569,782
1897	68	98	1,573	1,336,985	16,654,107	a6,569,493	50,693,526	4,989,589
1898	71	96	1,606	1,399,819	17,659,826	a6,990,007	53,256,725	5,333,221
1899	75	108	1,645	1,467,158	18,999,477	a7,860,518	57,134,086	5,742,523
1900	54	91	1,656	1,547,772	20,514,300	a8,504,385	62,923,437	6,208,116
1901	99	23	1,719	1,629,319	21,858,778	a9,114,772	66,857,091	6,533,543
1902	134	28	1,824	1,713,548	22,981,436	a9,607,079	69,711,342	6,877,301
1903	120	42	1,840	1,800,325	23,792,554	a9,257,997	72,296,789	6,984,344
1904	146	28	1,907	1,880,712	24,607,773	a9,201,947	73,713,727	7,278,535
					Totals..£		1,238,759,294	£113,789,622

a Loans and other Creditors.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

for each Year, from 1862 to 1904 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
		Industrial and Provident Societies, and other than Trade.	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	
127,749	1862
167,620	1863
294,451	1864
163,147	1865
181,766	1866
219,746	1867
255,923	583,539	494,429	3,203	32,629	1868
294,451	671,165	137,397	166,398	3,636	33,109	1869
280,116	784,847	117,586	178,367	3,814	38,630	1870
811,910	912,102	126,736	204,876	4,275	52,990	1871
346,415	1,029,446	145,004	262,594	5,097	66,631	1872
419,567	1,219,092	300,712	380,043	6,461	79,292	1873
488,464	1,439,137	337,811	443,724	6,864	83,149	1874
517,445	1,572,264	386,640	510,057	7,486	98,732	1875
598,080	1,852,437	636,400	538,140	10,454	220,011	1876
1,137,053	2,377,380	1877
1,222,664	2,310,041	1878
1,315,364	2,286,795	1879
1,353,832	2,486,704	1880
1,285,875	2,512,039	+3,226,370	13,262	1881
.....	2,585,443	13,314	1882
1,499,633	2,969,957	+3,919,455	14,070	1883
1,606,424	3,160,569	+4,113,995	15,903	1884
1,684,070	2,932,817	+4,118,751	18,062	1885
1,825,717	3,044,534	+4,811,819	19,374	1886
1,525,194	3,323,450	+3,475,319	18,440	1887
1,670,290	3,512,626	+4,112,807	19,707	1888
1,743,838	3,687,394	+4,868,141	22,391	1889
1,849,811	3,856,498	+5,386,444	23,388	1890
1,996,438	4,121,400	+6,407,701	24,919	1891
2,207,143	4,691,801	+5,749,811	27,196	1892
2,420,270	4,947,231	+6,154,426	29,105	1893
2,645,989	5,032,623	+6,234,093	29,151	1894
2,687,388	4,763,953	+6,054,847	32,503	1895
2,881,742	5,108,794	+6,625,724	36,433	1896
3,097,516	5,535,227	+11,303,924	40,269	1897
3,246,953	6,068,803	+11,670,057	42,791	1898
3,254,753	6,017,205	+12,816,168	44,495	1899
3,273,022	6,714,611	+13,998,278	48,214	1900
3,292,995	7,393,378	+15,151,574	53,684	1901
3,174,796	7,660,701	+16,217,514	57,908	1902
3,464,182	8,031,117	+16,688,477	62,817	1903
3,556,921	8,199,925	+17,271,042	64,823	1904
3,772,825	8,389,857	+17,667,614	66,356	

‡ Exclusive of Share Interest. † Investments other than in Trade. ; Investments and other Assets.

CO-OPERATIVE

TABLE (4).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS.

(Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NUMBER OF SOCIETIES			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.	
	Registered in the Year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.
					£	£
1872.....	25	38	178	33,829	181,793	27,022
1873.....	39	66	188	46,371	235,858	64,932
1874.....	15	50	216	54,431	250,026	88,920
1875.....	18	46	237	59,260	323,052	102,547
1876.....	10	57	228	63,310	314,577	144,953
1877.....	8	54	248	66,910	345,001	156,310
1878.....	4	54	218	70,119	381,028	180,208
1879.....	11	*40	208	68,967	373,728	171,173
1880.....	14	38	224	76,855	417,726	216,395
1881.....	12	9	259	90,430	505,731	278,438
1882.....	15	31	264	92,719	523,714	328,658
1883.....	13	7	292	106,034	630,768	373,081
1884.....	12	9	312	124,065	757,274	471,617
1885.....	11	..	317	132,597	837,771	536,567
1886.....	15	1	333	142,036	945,210	607,757
1887.....	11	1	334	152,866	1,063,647	654,252
1888.....	5	5	335	159,753	1,141,179	708,268
1889.....	8	6	340	171,555	1,253,117	825,406
1890.....	7	2	341	183,387	1,396,523	972,424
1891.....	7	..	343	196,796	1,578,731	1,129,390
1892.....	12	2	349	208,364	1,779,546	1,279,238
1893.....	6	2	352	217,521	1,896,633	1,413,582
1894.....	5	2	355	229,409	2,063,123	1,533,393
1895.....	10	1	365	231,866	2,215,309	1,766,199
1896.....	4	3	354	260,520	2,577,025	1,813,504
1897.....	5	1	357	276,053	2,812,048	a2,511,875
1898.....	2	2	349	282,467	2,958,996	a2,847,096
1899.....	9	8	349	296,272	3,277,164	a3,068,252
1900.....	9	7	350	313,686	3,574,413	a3,400,747
1901.....	8	7	354	327,150	3,761,520	a3,832,410
1902.....	9	4	356	345,112	3,956,039	a4,224,275
1903.....	9	4	350	361,422	4,264,656	a4,496,073
1904.....	8	..	355	377,446	4,569,707	a4,776,910
						Totals...

* Not stated, but estimated at about 40.

a Loans and other Creditors.

SOCIETIES, SCOTLAND.

for each Year, from 1872 to 1904 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Sales.	Net Profit.	Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
				Industrial and Provident Societies, and other than Trade.	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	
1,595,120	126,314	58,279	163,971	17,765	2,803	235	14,309	1872
1,972,426	150,302	67,302	188,265	32,591	5,315	243	19,573	1873
2,062,516	155,087	76,103	208,789	31,661	12,024	463	18,097	1874
2,277,812	176,795	87,038	241,888	31,425	15,314	425	21,919	1875
2,290,452	201,117	142,339	286,662	1876
2,676,225	241,991	158,621	337,268	1877
2,666,565	252,446	178,478	322,934	1878
2,549,565	258,152	182,450	370,510	1879
3,102,460	266,839	142,428	366,793	203,565	17,407	648	..	1880
3,649,155	322,012	..	466,222	508	..	1881
3,901,246	339,324	190,190	480,524	†361,788	..	708	..	1882
4,526,461	395,795	212,456	546,409	†376,482	..	885	..	1883
4,791,862	484,893	249,227	639,409	†424,637	..	1,092	..	1884
5,415,091	566,540	254,710	682,222	†613,500	..	1,338	..	1885
5,937,070	590,785	272,502	745,381	†383,132	..	1,438	..	1886
6,215,891	645,018	287,583	842,231	†377,867	..	1,673	..	1887
7,392,381	685,446	297,728	863,349	†365,208	..	1,847	..	1888
7,601,719	750,423	329,150	932,672	†445,991	..	2,067	..	1889
8,300,261	879,019	361,209	1,015,180	†550,430	..	2,668	..	1890
9,304,321	933,044	410,057	1,140,772	†641,016	..	2,891	..	1891
10,074,750	1,038,369	476,847	1,221,716	†791,895	..	3,648	..	1892
10,094,381	1,013,955	528,471	1,277,001	†841,978	..	3,526	..	1893
10,115,126	1,081,304	568,768	1,134,851	+1,114,863	..	4,050	..	1894
10,754,512	1,187,986	584,163	1,214,987	+1,251,063	..	5,058	..	1895
12,130,468	1,413,873	670,135	1,293,716	2,591,119	..	6,626	..	1896
13,669,417	1,539,547	659,198	1,513,820	2,576,514	..	7,508	..	1897
14,612,369	1,598,483	665,214	1,473,740	2,882,993	..	7,623	..	1898
15,609,622	1,773,591	6710,605	1,666,111	3,137,757	..	8,314	..	1899
17,200,882	1,955,274	6798,402	1,871,327	3,562,975	..	11,984	..	1900
17,984,673	2,119,757	6828,164	1,916,773	4,166,146	..	10,303	..	1901
18,709,093	2,231,559	6894,408	2,079,606	4,495,173	..	10,896	..	1902
19,624,718	2,337,344	6958,632	2,209,663	4,718,867	..	12,531	..	1903
21,019,531	2,493,538	61,035,324	2,339,227	5,138,004	..	13,335	..	1904
279,828,141	30,205,922							

b Exclusive of Share Interest. † Investments other than in Trade. ‡ Investments and other Assets.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES,
TABLE (5).—GENERAL SUMMARY of RETURNS
(Compiled from Official

YEAR.	NO. OF SOCIETIES			Number of Members.	CAPITAL AT END OF YEAR.		Sales.	Net Profit.
	Registered in the Year.	Not Making Returns.	Making Returns.		Share.	Loan.		
					£	£	£	£
1874	2	5	5	481	1,485	370	15,775	812
1875	1	2	7	792	9,638	5,370	15,519	1,725
1876	..	7	2	210	1,171	10	11,355	1,479
1877	1	6	4	505	7,490	10	16,434	2,190
1878	..	2	4	290	1,560	10	16,573	1,289
1879	1	..	6	537	7,615	200	17,170	1,482
1880	2	..	6	522	7,822	100	16,637	1,760
1881	4	..	10	834	2,889	..	19,058	1,533
1882	1	2	12	1,177	9,502	178	32,157	1,699
1883	..	5	9	1,052	9,140	241	32,587	2,375
1884	2	6	9	1,105	9,228	212	31,989	1,691
1885	..	3	10	1,043	9,121	326	32,754	2,535
1886	1	3	12	1,335	9,174	314	46,501	2,675
1887	3	5	12	1,425	11,147	904	45,892	2,407
1888	1	10	13	1,485	11,188	729	51,474	3,397
1889	4	5	13	1,693	10,626	205	56,613	2,580
1890	12	8	16	1,793	6,896	367	64,306	2,607
1891	22	14	28	2,267	15,547	3,318	102,474	4,234
1892	9	10	38	2,740	20,137	6,879	158,173	3,581
1893	8	17	41	3,587	21,195	7,649	226,109	3,846
1894	12	18	50	4,060	24,003	10,509	264,451	5,811
1895	45	43	71	6,708	23,203	11,457	341,849	6,209
1896	36	47	102	9,541	38,212	20,087	489,783	6,368
1897	53	66	135	14,097	43,852	a55,709	593,106	6,725
1898	109	129	175	20,812	52,288	a77,123	654,875	7,572
1899	68	182	189	24,146	63,892	a96,571	789,978	13,363
1900	54	258	168	24,794	67,597	a105,639	896,109	14,432
1901	46	302	166	23,972	76,801	a111,850	930,942	17,276
1902	110	303	286	44,604	125,930	a202,786	1,352,488	15,116
1903	96	335	333	54,126	143,659	a233,605	1,463,292	16,938
1904	48	295	402	61,958	159,912	a276,689	1,530,070	19,667
					Totals..		£10,316,493	£175,374

a Loans and other Creditors.

IRELAND.

for each Year, from 1874 to 1904 inclusive.

Sources, and Corrected.)

Trade Expenses.	Trade Stock.	CAPITAL INVESTED IN		Profit Devoted to Education.	Amount of Reserve Fund.	YEAR.
		Industrial and Provident Societies.	Joint-stock Companies.			
£	£	£	£	£	£	
907	1874
1,060	1,350	67	1875
464	1876
676	973	1877
765	15	1878
856	45	71	1879
857	1,244	5	1880
1,039	1,668	8	3	1881
2,284	2,461	*21	1882
1,924	2,577	*7,241	1883
3,188	3,610	*7,502	1884
2,112	2,736	*7,801	1885
2,651	3,934	1886
2,501	5,979	*809	1887
3,325	5,850	*510	7	1888
3,814	5,962	*843	1889
3,672	5,170	*656	1890
3,891	5,797	*4,040	1891
5,877	6,340	*6,585	1892
7,358	5,091	*13,618	1893
11,132	6,638	*5,026	1894
12,131	9,321	*3,765	1895
18,412	15,075	†34,286	1896
b12,486	19,588	†31,523	3	1897
b16,208	15,741	†53,925	11	1898
b17,881	19,377	†67,201	34	1899
b22,812	19,958	†74,346	31	1900
b24,736	28,843	†82,453	47	1901
b42,400	45,195	†121,710	40	1902
b37,910	47,046	†137,612	1903
b43,320	50,719	†162,632	2	1904

b Exclusive of Share Interest. * Investments other than in Trade. † Investments and other Assets.

SALES OF CIVIL SERVICE SUPPLY STORES.

	Civil Service Supply.	Civil Service (Haymarket).	New Civil Service.
	£	£	£
1871	625,305
1872	712,399
1873	819,428
1874	896,094
1875	925,332
1876	983,545
1877	946,780
1878	1,384,042
1879	1,474,923
1880	1,420,619	514,399
1881	1,488,507	520,155	139,367
1882	1,603,670	497,650
1883	1,682,655	329,805	149,478
1884	1,691,455	481,560	148,975
1885	1,758,648	468,992	150,948
1886	1,743,306	465,096	150,383
1887	1,732,483	469,456	155,000
1888	1,763,814	473,817	158,028
1889	1,775,500	481,120	158,317
1890	1,789,397	481,352	164,160
1891	1,817,779	475,066	178,761
1892	1,749,384	471,133	168,582
1893	1,675,848	448,171	158,313
1894	1,663,970	439,283	154,541
1895	1,670,849	442,942	149,185
1896	1,707,780	448,129	143,289
1897	1,694,710	437,638	138,836
1898	1,672,520	424,588	127,392
1899	1,741,769	420,471	118,252
1900	1,769,655	423,610	109,297
1901	1,756,199	414,146	98,174
1902	1,746,960	406,761	91,052
1903	1,723,267	393,950	84,414
1904	1,680,666	405,224
1905	1,665,511

Above we give the Sales of the Civil Service Supply Stores as distinct from the ordinary distributive societies appearing in the previous tables.

LIST OF PUBLIC ACTS OF PARLIAMENT.

6 EDWARD VII.—A.D. 1906.

* * *The figures before each Act denote the Chapter.*

1. Consolidated Fund (No. 1).
2. Army (Annual).
3. Seed Potatoes Supply (Ireland).
4. Post Office (Money Orders).
5. Seamen's and Soldiers' False Characters.
6. Metropolitan Police (Commission).
7. Police (Superannuation).
8. Finance.
9. Indian Railways Act Amendment Act.
10. Education of Defective Children (Scotland).
11. Reserve Forces.
12. Municipal Corporations Amendment.
13. Wireless Telegraphy.
14. Alkali, &c., Works Regulation.
15. Extradition.
16. Justices of the Peace.
17. Bills of Exchange (Crossed Cheques).
18. Isle of Man (Customs).
19. Deanery of Manchester.
20. Revenue.
21. Ground Game (Amendment).
22. Post Office (Literature for the Blind).
23. Charitable Loan Societies (Ireland).
24. Solicitors.
25. Open Spaces.
26. Appropriation.
27. Fertilisers and Feeding Stuffs.
28. Crown Lands.
29. Public Works Loans.
30. Colonial Marriages (Deceased Wife's Sister).
31. Local Government (Ireland) Act (1898) Amendment.
32. Dogs.
33. Local Authorities (Treasury Powers).
34. Prevention of Corruption.
35. Fatal Accidents and Sudden Deaths Inquiry (Scotland).
36. Musical Copyright.
37. Labourers (Ireland).
38. Statute Law Revision (Scotland).

NATIONAL INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

An Account of the Public Income and Expenditure of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in the Year ended March 31st, 1906, presented to Parliament pursuant to Act 17 and 18 Vic., c. 94, s. 2.

INCOME.

	£	s.	d.
Customs	34,475,000	0	0
Excise	30,230,000	0	0
Estate, &c., Duties	12,970,000	0	0
Stamps (exclusive of Fee, &c., Stamps)	8,180,800	0	0
Land Tax	720,000	0	0
House Duty	1,950,000	0	0
Property and Income Tax	31,350,000	0	0
Post Office	16,880,000	0	0
Telegraph Service	4,130,000	0	0
Crown Lands (net)	430,000	0	0
Receipts from Suez Canal Shares and Sundry Loans	1,098,594	8	10
Miscellaneous (including Fee, &c. Stamps)	1,513,981	3	11

Total Income.....£143,977,575 12 9

EXPENDITURE.

CONSOLIDATED FUND SERVICES.

NATIONAL DEBT SERVICES—

Inside the Permanent or Fixed Annual Charge.

	£	s.	d.
Funded Debt—			
Interest	15,899,396	19	0
Terminable Annuities	6,548,668	3	11
Interest on Unfunded Debt	1,918,821	8	10
Management of the Debt	183,775	17	7
New Sinking Fund	3,449,337	10	8
	23,000,000	0	0

Outside the Permanent or Fixed Annual Charge.

Expenses incurred in connection with the Issue of Exchequer Bonds under the Finance Act, 1905.....

OTHER CONSOLIDATED FUND SERVICES—

	£	s.	d.
Civil List	470,000	0	0
Annuities and Pensions	260,273	9	5
Salaries and Allowances	78,768	19	9
Courts of Justice	511,023	11	3
Miscellaneous Services	304,093	16	5
	1,624,159	16	10
Payments to Local Taxation Accounts	1,156,767	17	11

SUPPLY SERVICES.

Army Services	28,849,900	0	0
Ordnance Factories	100	0	0
Navy Services	33,300,000	0	0
Miscellaneous Civil Services	28,430,000	0	0
Customs and Inland Revenue Departments	3,145,000	0	0
Post Office	10,630,000	0	0
Telegraph Service	4,648,000	0	0
Post Office Packet Service	700,000	0	0
	109,706,000	0	0

Total Expenditure.....140,511,965 4 0

Excess of Income over Expenditure 3,465,620 8 9

£143,977,575 12 9

CUSTOMS TARIFF OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

ARTICLES *subject to IMPORT and EXPORT DUTIES in the UNITED KINGDOM, and the DUTY levied upon each ARTICLE, according to the Tariff in operation on the 21st July, 1906.*

ARTICLES.		RATES OF DUTY.		
IMPORTS.		£ s. d.		
BEER called Mum, Spruce, or Black Beer, and Berlin White Beer and other preparations, whether fermented or not fermented, of a character similar to Mum, Spruce, or Black Beer, where the worts thereof were, before fermentation, of a specific gravity—				
Not exceeding 1,215°	{ per every 36 galls. }	1	12	0
Exceeding 1,215°	"	1	17	6
BEER of any other description, where the worts thereof were, before fermentation, of a specific gravity of 1,055°..				
And so on in proportion for any difference in gravity.	"	0	8	0
CARDS, PLAYING	doz. packs.	0	3	9
CHICORY:				
Raw or kiln-dried	per cwt.	0	13	3
Roasted or ground	per lb.	0	0	2
CHLORAL HYDRATE	"	0	1	4
CHLOROFORM	"	0	3	3
COCOA:				
Husks and Shells	per cwt.	0	2	0
Cocoa or Chocolate, ground, prepared, or in any way manufactured	per lb.	0	0	2
Cocoa Butter	"	0	0	1
COFFEE:				
Raw	per cwt.	0	14	0
Kiln-dried, roasted, or ground	per lb.	0	0	2
Coffee and Chicory (or other vegetable substances) roasted and ground, mixed	"	0	0	2
COLLODION	per gallon.	1	6	3
ETHER, Acetic	per lb.	0	1	11
" Butyric	per gallon.	0	16	5
" Sulphuric	"	1	7	5
ETHYL, Bromide	per lb.	0	1	1
" Chloride	per gallon.	0	16	5
" Iodide	"	0	14	3
FRUIT—Dried, or otherwise preserved without Sugar:—				
Currants	per cwt.	0	2	0
Figs and Fig Cake, Plums, commonly called French Plums, and Prunelloes, Plums dried or preserved, not otherwise described, Prunes and Raisins	"	0	7	0
Fruit, liable to duty as such, preserved with Sugar— See Sugar.				
GLUCOSE:—				
Solid	"	0	2	9
Liquid	"	0	2	0

CUSTOMS TARIFF OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

ARTICLES.	RATES OF DUTY.			
MOLASSES and invert Sugar and all other Sugar and extracts from Sugar which cannot be completely tested by the polariscope and on which duty is not otherwise charged :		£ s. d.		
If containing 70 per cent. or more of sweetening matter	per cwt.	0	2	9
If containing less than 70 per cent., and more than 50 per cent. of sweetening matter	"	0	2	0
If containing not more than 50 per cent. of sweetening matter.....	"	0	1	0
Molasses is free of duty when cleared for use by a licensed distiller in the manufacture of Spirits, or if it is to be used solely for purposes of food for stock.				
SACCHARIN and mixtures containing Saccharin, or other substances of like nature or use	per oz.	0	1	3
SOAP, TRANSPARENT, in the manufacture of which Spirit has been used	per lb..	0	0	3
SPIRITS AND STRONG WATERS:				
For every gallon, computed at hydrometer proof, of Spirits of any description (except perfumed Spirits), including Naphtha or Methylic Alcohol purified so as to be potable, and mixtures and preparations containing Spirits. Enumerated Spirits:—	Imported in Casks.	Imported in Bottles.		
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
Brandythe proof gallon	0 11 4	0 12 4		
Rum " "	0 11 4	0 12 4		
Imitation Rum..... " "	0 11 5	0 12 5		
Geneva " "	0 11 5	0 12 5		
Additional in respect of Sugar used in sweetening any of the above tested for strength, if sweetened to such an extent that the Spirit thereby ceases to be an Enumerated Spirit; the proof gallon	0 0 2	0 0 2		
Unenumerated Spirits:—				
Sweetenedthe proof gallon (Including Liqueurs, Cordials, Mixtures, and other preparations containing Spirits; if tested.)	0 11 7	0 12 7		
Not Sweetenedthe proof gallon (Including Liqueurs, Cordials, Mixtures, and other preparations containing Spirits, provided such Spirits can be shown to be both Unenumerated and not sweetened; if tested.)	0 11 5	0 11 5		
Liqueurs, Cordials, Mixtures, and other preparations containing Spirits, not sweetened, provided such spirits are not shown to be Unenumerated; if tested. the proof gallon	0 11 5	0 12 5		
Liqueurs, Cordials, Mixtures, and other preparations containing Spirits in bottle, entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested; the liquid gallon	..	0 16 4		
Perfumed Spiritsthe liquid gallon	0 18 1	0 19 1		
Upon payment of the difference between the Customs Duty on Foreign Spirits and the Excise Duty on British Spirits, Foreign Spirits may be delivered under certain conditions for Methylation or for use in Art or Manufacture.				

CUSTOMS TARIFF OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

ARTICLES.		RATES OF DUTY.		
SUGAR:			£	s. d.
Tested by the polariscope, of a polarisation exceeding 98°		per cwt.	0	4 2
Of a polarisation not exceeding 76°		"	0	2 0
Intermediate rates of duty are levied on Sugar of a polarisation not exceeding 98°, but exceeding 76°, and special rates on Composite Sugar Articles.				
TEA		per lb.	0	0 5
TOBACCO—Manufactured, viz.:				
Cigars		"	0	6 0
Cavendish or Negro-head		"	0	4 4
Cavendish or Negro-head Manufactured in Bond		"	0	3 10
Other Manufactured Tobacco, viz.:				
Cigarettes		"	0	4 10
Other sorts		"	0	3 10
Snuff containing more than 13lbs. of moisture in every 100lbs. weight thereof		"	0	3 7
Snuff not containing more than 13lbs. of moisture in every 100lbs. weight thereof		"	0	4 4
Unmanufactured, if Stripped or Stemmed:—				
Containing 10lbs. or more of moisture in every 100lbs. weight thereof		"	0	3 0½
Containing less than 10lbs. of moisture in every 100lbs. weight thereof		"	0	3 4½
Unmanufactured, if Unstripped or Unstemmed:—				
Containing 10lbs. or more of moisture in every 100lbs. weight thereof		"	0	3 0
Containing less than 10lbs. of moisture in every 100lbs. weight thereof		"	0	3 4
WINE:—				
Not exceeding 30° of Proof Spirit		per gallon.	0	1 3
Exceeding 30° but not exceeding 42° of Proof Spirit....		"	0	3 0
And for every degree or part of a degree beyond the highest above charged, an additional duty		"	0	0 3
Additional:—On Still Wine imported in Bottles		"	0	1 0
On Sparkling Wine imported in Bottles ..		"	0	2 6
EXPORTS.				
COAL, CINDERS, &c., exported, viz.:				
Coal and Culm		per ton.	0	1 0
Coke and Cinders		"	0	1 0
Fuel, Manufactured		"	90 per cent. of export duty on Coal.	
A Rebate of the Duty is allowed on Coal the value of which, free on board, exclusive of duty, is proved not to exceed 6s. per ton; and on Fuel in respect of any Coal ingredient which is proved therein to be of a not higher value than 6s. per ton.				

INCOME TAX RATES

FROM ITS FIRST IMPOSITION IN 1842 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

From and to April 5th.	Income free under.	On £100 to £150.	On £100 and upw'ds.	Chancellor of the Exchequer.	Premier.
	£	Rate in the £.			
1842 to 1846..	150	—	7d.	Henry Goulburn.	Sir Robert Peel.
1846 " 1852..	Do.	—	7d.	Sir Charles Wood.	Lord John Russell.
1852 " 1853..	Do.	—	7d.	Benjamin Disraeli.	Earl of Derby.
1853 " 1854..	100	5d.	7d.	William E. Gladstone.	Earl of Aberdeen.
1854 " 1855..	Do.	10d.	1s. 2d.	Do.	Do.
1855 " 1857..	Do.	11½d.	1s. 4d.	Sir G. Cornewell Lewis.	Viscount Palmerston.
1857 " 1858..	Do.	5d.	7d.	Do.	Do.
1858 " 1859..	Do.	5d.	5d.	Do.	Do.
1859 " 1860..	Do.	6½d.	9d.	Benjamin Disraeli.	Earl of Derby.
1860 " 1861..	Do.	7d.	10d.	William E. Gladstone.	Viscount Palmerston.
1861 " 1863..	*100	6d.	9d.	Do.	Do.
1863 " 1864..	Do.	7d.		Do.	Do.
1864 " 1865..	Do.	6d.		Do.	Do.
1865 " 1866..	Do.	4d.		Do.	Do.
1866 " 1867..	Do.	4d.		Do.	Do.
1867 " 1868..	Do.	5d.		Do.	Earl Russell.
1868 " 1869..	Do.	6d.		Benjamin Disraeli.	Earl of Derby.
1869 " 1870..	Do.	5d.		George Ward Hunt.	Benjamin Disraeli.
1870 " 1871..	Do.	4d.		Robert Lowe.	William E. Gladstone.
1871 " 1872..	Do.	6d.		Do.	Do.
1872 " 1873..	Do.	4d.		Do.	Do.
1873 " 1874..	Do.	3d.		Do.	Do.
1874 " 1876..	Do.	2d.		Sir Stafford Northcote.	Benjamin Disraeli.
1876 " 1878..	†150	3d.		Do.	Earl of Beaconsfield.
1878 " 1880..	Do.	5d.		Do.	Do.
1880 " 1881..	Do.	6d.		William E. Gladstone.	William E. Gladstone.
1881 " 1882..	Do.	5d.		Do.	Do.
1882 " 1883..	Do.	6½d.		Do.	Do.
1883 " 1884..	Do.	5d.		Hugh C. E. Childers.	Do.
1884 " 1885..	Do.	6d.		Do.	Do.
1885 " 1886..	Do.	8d.		Sir M. Hicks-Beach.	Marquis of Salisbury.
1886 " 1887..	{ Do.	8d.		Sir William Harcourt.	William E. Gladstone.
1887 " 1888..	{ Do.	8d.		Lord Rand. Churchill.	Marquis of Salisbury.
1888 " 1892..	Do.	7d.		G. J. Goschen.	Do.
1889 " 1893..	Do.	6d.		Do.	Do.
1893 " 1894..	Do.	6d.		Sir W. Harcourt.	William E. Gladstone.
1894 " 18 5..	†160	7d.		Do.	Do.
1895 " 1898..	Do.	8d.		Do.	Earl Rosebery.
1898 " 1900..	§ Do.	8d.		Sir M. Hicks-Beach.	Marquis of Salisbury.
1900 " 1901..	§ Do.	1s.		Do.	Do.
1901 " 1902..	§ Do.	1s. 2d.		Do.	Do.
1902 " 1903..	{ § Do.	1s. 3d.		Do.	Do.
1903 " 1904..	{ § Do.	1s. 3d.		C. T. Ritchie.	A. J. Balfour.
1904 " 1905..	§ Do.	11d.		Do.	Do.
1905 " 1906..	§ Do.	1s.		A. Chamberlain.	Do.
1906 " 1907..	§ Do.	1s.		H. H. Asquith.	Do.
					Sir H. C'mpb'll-B'nnerm'n

* Differential rate upon scale of incomes abolished. Incomes under £100 are exempt; and incomes of £100 and under £199 per annum have an abatement from the assessment of £60:—thus, £100 pays on £40; £160 upon £100; £199 upon £139; but £200 pays on £200.

† Under £150 exempt; if under £400 the tax is not chargeable upon the first £120.

‡ Under £160 exempt; if under £400 the tax is not chargeable upon the first £160; above £400 and up to £500, an abatement of £100.

§ Exemption may be claimed when the income from all sources does not exceed £160 per annum. Abatement of duty on £160 may be claimed when the income exceeds £160, but does not exceed £400; on £150 when the income exceeds £400, but does not exceed £500; on £120 when the income exceeds £500, but does not exceed £600 and on £70 when the income exceeds £600, but does not exceed £700.

AVERAGE PRICE PER £100 of the NEW TWO-AND-A-HALF* PER CENT CONSOLIDATED STOCK MONTHLY
from MARCH, 1889, to DECEMBER, 1905.

MONTHS.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.
January.....	£ 98½	£ 97½	£ 96¾	£ 95¾	£ 98½	£ 98½	£ 104½	£ 107	£ 112	£ 112¾	£ 111	£ 100½	£ 96½	£ 94	£ 93½	£ 87½	£ 88¾
February ..	99	97½	97½	95¾	98¾	99½	104¾	108½	112½	112¾	111½	101	97¾	94½	92¾	86½	89½
March	97½	97½	97½	95¾	98½	99½	104½	109½	111½	111½	110½	101½	96½	94	91½	86	91½
April	98½	98	96½	96½	99	100	105½	111½	112	110½	110½	100½	95½	94½	91½	88	90½
May	99	98½	95½	97½	98½	100½	105½	112½	113½	110½	110½	101½	94½	95½	92½	90½	90½
June	98½	97½	95½	96¾	99	101½	106½	113	112½	111½	108½	101½	93½	96½	91½	90½	90½
July	98½	96½	95½	96½	99	101½	107½	113½	112½	111½	106½	98½	92½	95	92½	89½	90½
August	98½	96½	96	97½	98	102½	107½	113½	112½	110½	105½	98½	94½	95	90½	88	90½
September..	97	95½	94½	97	98½	102½	107½	110½	111½	109½	104½	98½	93½	93	89½	88½	89½
October	97	94½	94½	97	98½	101½	107½	108½	111½	109½	103½	98½	93½	93½	88½	88½	88½
November ..	97	94½	95	97½	98½	102½	106½	110½	112½	110½	99½	98½	91½	93	88½	88½	88½
December ..	97½	95½	95½	97½	98½	103½	106½	111½	112½	110½	100½	97½	93½	92½	88½	88½	89½
Average for the year..}	98	96½	95½	96½	98½	101½	106½	110½	112½	110½	106½	99½	94½	94½	90½	88½	89½

* The rate of interest on Consols was reduced from 2½ per cent to 2½ per cent on April 6th, 1903, and the first dividends at the lower rate became payable on July 5th, 1903.

AVERAGE MINIMUM RATE PER CENT OF DISCOUNT CHARGED BY THE BANK OF ENGLAND IN EACH MONTH
IN EACH YEAR FROM 1890 TO 1905.

MONTHS.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	MONTHS.
Jan.	6	4	3½	2½	3	2	2	3½	3	3½	4½	4½	3½	4	4	3	Jan.
Feb.	5½	3	3	2½	2½	2	2	3½	3	3	4	4½	3½	4	4	3	Feb.
March....	4½	3	3	2½	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	2½	March.
April....	3½	3½	2½	2½	2	2	2	2½	3½	3	4	4	3	4	3½	2½	April.
May....	3	4½	2	3½	2	2	2	2½	3½	3	3½	4	3	3½	3	2½	May.
June....	3½	3½	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	3	3½	3½	3	3½	3	2½	June.
July....	4	2½	2	2½	2	2	2	2	2½	3½	3½	3	3	3	3	2½	July.
August..	4½	2½	2	4	2	2	2	2	2½	3½	4	3	3	3	3	2½	August.
Sept....	4½	2½	2	4½	2	2	2½	2½	2½	3½	4	3	3	3½	3	3	Sept.
Oct.....	5	3	2½	3	2	2	3½	2½	3½	4½	4	3	3½	4	3	4	October.
Nov.....	5½	4	3	3	2	2	4	3	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4	Nov.
Dec.....	5½	3½	3	3	2	2	4	3	4	6	4	4	4	4	3	4	Dec.
Average for the year...	4½	3½	2½	3½	2½	2	2½	2½	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	3½	3	Average for the year..

DEALINGS WITH LAND.

SCALE OF LAW COSTS ON THE SALE, PURCHASE, OR MORTGAGE OF REAL PROPERTY, HOUSES, OR LAND.

	For the 1st £1,000.	For the 2nd and 3rd £1,000.	For the 4th and each subsequent £1,000 up to £10,000.	For each subsequent £1,000 up to £100,000.*
	Per £100. £ s. d.	Per £100. £ s. d.	Per £100. £ s. d.	Per £100. £ s. d.
Vendor's solicitor for negotiating a sale of property by private contract	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Do., do., for conducting a sale of pro- perty by public auction, including the conditions of sale—				
When the property is sold† . . .	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 2 6
When the property is not sold, then on the reserve price† . .	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 2 6	0 1 3
Do., do., for deducing title to freehold, copyhold, or leasehold property, and perusing and completing conveyance (including preparation of contract or conditions of sale, if any)	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Purchaser's solicitor for negotiating a pur- chase of property by private contract..	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Do., do., for investigating title to free- hold, copyhold, or leasehold property, and preparing and completing con- veyance (including perusal and com- pletion of contract, if any)	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Mortgagor's solicitor for deducing title to freehold, copyhold, or leasehold property, perusing mortgage, and completing....	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Mortgagee's solicitor for negotiating loan	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 5 0	0 2 6
Do., do., for investigating title to freehold, copyhold, or leasehold property, and preparing and completing mortgage ..	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 5 0

Vendor's or mortgagor's solicitor for procuring execution and acknowledgment of deed by a married woman, £2. 10s. extra.

Where the prescribed remuneration would amount to less than £5 the prescribed remuneration is £5, except on transactions under £100, in which case the remuneration of the solicitor for the vendor, purchaser, mortgagor, or mortgagee is £3.

* Every transaction exceeding £100,000 to be charged for as if it were for £100,000.
† A minimum charge of £5 to be made whether a sale is effected or not.

DEALINGS WITH LAND.

Scale of Law Costs as to Leases, or Agreements for Leases, at Rack Rent (other than a Mining Lease, or a Lease for Building Purposes, or Agreement for the same).

LESSOR'S SOLICITOR FOR PREPARING, SETTLING, AND COMPLETING
LEASE AND COUNTERPART.

Where the rent does not exceed £100, £7. 10s. per cent. on the rental, but not less in any case than £5.

Where the rent exceeds £100, and does not exceed £500, £7. 10s. in respect of the first £100 of rent, and £2. 10s. in respect of each subsequent £100 of rent.

Where the rent exceeds £500, £7. 10s. in respect of the first £100 of rent, £2. 10s. in respect of each £100 of rent up to £500, and £1 in respect of every subsequent £100.

Lessee's solicitor for perusing draft and completing—one-half of the amount payable to the lessor's solicitor.

Scale of Law Costs as to Conveyances in Fee, or for any other Freehold Estate reserving rent, or Building Leases reserving rent, or other Long Leases not at Rack Rent (except Mining Leases), or Agreements for the same respectively.

VENDOR'S OR LESSOR'S SOLICITOR FOR PREPARING, SETTLING, AND
COMPLETING CONVEYANCE AND DUPLICATE, OR LEASE AND
COUNTERPART.

Amount of Annual Rent.	Amount of Remuneration.
Where it does not exceed £5..	£5.
Where it exceeds £5, and does not exceed £50	The same payment as on a rent of £5, and also 20 per cent. on the excess beyond £5.
Where it exceeds £50, but does not exceed £150	The same payment as on a rent of £50, and 10 per cent. on the excess beyond £50.
Where it exceeds £150	The same payment as on a rent of £150, and 5 per cent. on the excess beyond £150.

Where a varying rent is payable the amount of annual rent is to mean the largest amount of annual rent.

Purchaser's or lessee's solicitor for perusing draft and completing—one-half of the amount payable to the vendor's or lessor's solicitor.

THE DEATH DUTIES.

ESTATE DUTY.

THIS duty, which in the case of persons dying after the 1st August, 1894, takes the place of the old Probate Account and Estate Duties, is now regulated by the Finance Acts, 1894, 1896, 1898, and 1900.

It is payable on the principal value of all property (save in a few exceptional cases), whether real or personal, settled or not settled, which passes on death.

The rates of duty (which in case of real estate may be paid by instalments) are as follow:—

PRINCIPAL NET VALUE OF ESTATE.					RATE PER CENT.
Above	£100, but not above	£500		1
"	500	"	"	1,000	2
"	1,000	"	"	10,000	3
"	10,000	"	"	25,000	4
"	25,000	"	"	50,000	4½
"	50,000	"	"	75,000	5
"	75,000	"	"	100,000	5½
"	100,000	"	"	150,000	6
"	150,000	"	"	250,000	6½
"	250,000	"	"	500,000	7
"	500,000	"	"	1,000,000	7½
"	1,000,000			8

Where the net value of the estate (real and personal) does not exceed £100, no duty is payable.

Where the gross value of the estate (real and personal) exceeds £100, but does not exceed £300, the duty is only 30s., and where it exceeds £300, but does not exceed £500, only 50s.

Where the property is settled, an extra duty known as Settlement Estate Duty is in certain cases payable at the rate of 1 per cent.

Debts and funeral expenses are deducted before calculating the duty, except where the gross value of the estate does not exceed £500, and it is desired to pay the fixed duty of 30s. or 50s., as the case may be, instead of the *ad valorem* duty.

THE DEATH DUTIES.

LEGACY DUTY.

This duty is regulated by 55 Geo. III., cap. 184, 51 Vict., cap. 8, and the Finance Act, 1894, and is payable in respect of personal estate (including proceeds of sale of real estate) passing on death, either under a will or in case of intestacy.

The rates of duty are as follow:—

DESCRIPTION OF LEGATEE.	RATE OF DUTY.
Children of the deceased and their descendants, or the father or mother or any lineal ancestor of the deceased or the husbands or wives of any such persons	£1 per cent.
Brothers and sisters of the deceased and their descendants, or the husbands or wives of any such persons	£3 "
Brothers and sisters of the father or mother of the deceased and their descendants, or the husbands or wives of any such persons	£5 "
Brothers and sisters of a grandfather or grandmother of the deceased and their descendants, or the husbands or wives of any such persons	£6 "
Any person in any other degree of collateral consanguinity or strangers in blood to the deceased	£10 "

SUCCESSION DUTY.

This duty is regulated by 16 and 17 Vict., cap. 51, 51 Vict., cap. 8, and the Finance Acts, 1894 and 1896, and is payable in respect of real estate (including leaseholds) passing on death, and in certain cases in respect of settled personal estate.

The rates of duty are as follow:—

DESCRIPTION OF SUCCESSOR.	RATE OF DUTY.
Lineal issue or lineal ancestor of the predecessor, or the husband or wife of any such person	£1 per cent.
Brothers and sisters of the predecessor and their descendants, or the husbands or wives of any such persons	£3 "
Brothers and sisters of the father or mother of the predecessor and their descendants, or the husbands or wives of any such persons	£5 "
Brothers and sisters of a grandfather or grandmother of the predecessor and their descendants, or the husbands or wives of any such persons	£6 "
Persons of more remote consanguinity, or strangers in blood..	£10 "

THE DEATH DUTIES.

NOTE.—Where the duty under the foregoing tables is at the rate of £1 per cent., an extra duty at the rate of 10s. per cent., and in all other cases an extra duty at the rate of £1. 10s. per cent., is leviable in respect of legacies payable out of or charged on real estate (not including leaseholds) and of successions to real estate (not including leaseholds) on deaths between the 1st July, 1888, and the 2nd August, 1894.

The husband or wife of deceased is exempt from legacy or succession duty.

Legacy duty is payable on the capital value, while succession duty is in certain cases payable on the capital value, and in other cases payable on the value of an annuity equal to the net income of the property, calculated according to the age of the successor.

Where the whole net value of the estate does not exceed £1,000, no legacy, succession, or settlement estate duty is payable.

All pecuniary legacies, residues, or shares of residue, although not of the amount of £20, are subject to duty.

In case of persons dying leaving issue, the estate duty covers all legacy and succession duty which would formerly have been paid by such issue.

In case of persons dying domiciled in the United Kingdom, legacy duty is payable on all movable property wherever situate.

In case of persons dying domiciled abroad, no legacy duty is payable on movable property.



RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

The following Statement shows the Proportion of Passengers Returned as Killed and Injured from Causes beyond their own Control, in Passenger Journeys, for the Years 1881 to 1905 :—

YEAR.	Number of Passengers Killed and Injured from causes beyond their own control, from Accidents to Trains.		Number of Passenger Journeys (exclusive of Journeys by Season-ticket Holders). †	Proportion returned as Killed and Injured (from causes beyond their own control) to number carried.	
	Killed.	Injured.		Killed.	Injured.
1881.....	23	987	622,160,000	1 in 27,050,435	1 in 630,354
1882.....	18	803	654,838,295	1 in 36,379,905	1 in 815,489
1883.....	11	662	683,718,137	1 in 62,156,194	1 in 1,032,806
1884.....	31	864	694,991,860	1 in 22,419,092	1 in 804,338
1885.....	6	436	697,213,031	1 in 116,202,171	1 in 1,599,112
1886.....	8	615	725,584,390	1 in 90,698,049	1 in 1,179,812
1887.....	25	538	733,670,000	1 in 29,346,800	1 in 1,363,699
1888.....	11	594	742,830,000	1 in 67,530,000	1 in 1,250,555
1889.....	*88	*1,016	775,183,073	1 in 8,908,875	1 in 762,975
1890.....	18	496	817,744,046	1 in 45,430,224	1 in 1,648,677
1891.....	5	875	845,463,668	1 in 169,092,733	1 in 966,244
1892.....	21	601	864,435,388	1 in 41,163,589	1 in 1,438,328
1893.....	17	484	873,177,052	1 in 51,363,356	1 in 1,804,084
1894.....	16	347	911,412,926	1 in 56,963,307	1 in 2,626,550
1895.....	5	399	929,770,909	1 in 185,954,182	1 in 2,390,253
1896.....	5	388	980,339,433	1 in 196,067,887	1 in 2,526,648
1897.....	18	324	1,030,420,201	1 in 57,245,567	1 in 8,180,309
1898.....	25	362	1,062,911,116	1 in 42,516,445	1 in 2,936,219
1899.....	14	693	1,106,691,991	1 in 79,049,428	1 in 1,596,958
1900.....	16	863	1,142,276,686	1 in 71,392,293	1 in 1,323,611
1901.....	—	476	1,172,395,900	1 in 2,463,017
1902.....	6	732	1,188,219,269	1 in 198,036,545	1 in 1,623,250
1903.....	25	769	1,195,265,195	1 in 47,810,609	1 in 1,554,311
1904.....	6	534	1,198,773,720	1 in 199,758,000	1 in 2,244,472
1905.....	39	396	1,199,022,102	1 in 30,744,156	1 in 3,027,834

* Including 80 killed and 202 injured in a collision near Armagh. † Number of annual season tickets issued in 1905, 663,040.

RULES BY WHICH THE PERSONAL ESTATES OF PERSONS DYING INTTESTATE ARE DISTRIBUTED.

If the Intestate die, leaving

His representatives take in the proportion following:—

Wife and child, or children	{ One-third to wife, rest to child or children; and if children are dead, then to the representatives (that is, their lineal descendants), except such child or children, not heirs-at-law, who had estate by settlement of intestate, or were advanced by him in his lifetime, equal to other shares.
Wife only, no relations	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, rest to Crown.
Wife, no near relations	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, rest to next-of-kin in equal degree to intestate, or their legal representatives.
No wife or child	{ All to next-of-kin and their legal representatives.
No wife, but child, children, or representatives of them, whether such child or children by one or more wives.	{ All to him, her, or them.
Children by two wives	{ Equally to all.
If no child, children, or representatives of them	{ All to next-of-kin in equal degree to intestate.
Child, and grandchild by deceased child	{ Half to child, half to grandchild, who takes by representation.
Husband	{ Whole to him.
Father, and brother or sister	{ Whole to father.
Mother, and brother or sister	{ Whole to them equally.
Wife, mother, brothers, sisters, and nieces (daughters of deceased brother or sister)	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, residue to mother, brothers, sisters, and nieces.
Wife, and father	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, and half to father.
Wife, brothers or sisters, and mother	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, half to brothers or sisters and mother.
Mother, but no wife, child, father, brother, sister, nephew, or niece.	{ The whole to mother.
Wife, and mother	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, half to mother.

RULES BY WHICH THE PERSONAL ESTATES OF PERSONS DYING INTTESTATE ARE DISTRIBUTED—continued.

If the Intestate die, leaving

His representatives take in the proportion following:—

Brother or sister of whole blood, and brother or sister of half blood...	Equally to both.
Posthumous brother or sister, and mother	Equally to both.
Posthumous brother or sister, and brother or sister born in lifetime of father	Equally to both.
Father's father and mother's mother	Equally to both.
Uncle or aunt's children, and brother or sister's grandchildren	Equally to all.
Grandmother uncle, or aunt	All to grandmother.
Two aunts, nephew and niece	Equally to all.
Uncle, and deceased uncle's child	All to uncle.
Uncle by mother's side, and deceased uncle or aunt's child	All to uncle.
Nephew by brother, and nephew by half-sister	Equally per capita.*
Nephew by deceased brother, and nephews and nieces by deceased sister	Each in equal shares per capita, and not per stirpes.
Brother, and grandfather	Whole to brother.
Brother's grandson, and brother or sister's daughter	All to brother or sister's daughter.
Brother, and two aunts	All to brother.
Brother, and wife	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to brother, half to wife.
Wife, mother, and children of a deceased brother (or sister)	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, a fourth to mother, and a fourth per stirpes to deceased brother's or sister's children.
Wife, brother, or sister, and children of a deceased brother or sister	{ Up to £500, all to wife; all above the first £500, in each case, half to wife, one-fourth to brother or sister, one-fourth to deceased brother's or sister's children per stirpes.
Brother or sister, and children of a deceased brother or sister	{ Half to brother or sister, half to children of deceased brother or sister per stirpes.
Grandfather, no nearer relation	All to grandfather.

* That is, taking individually, and not by representation. Thus, if A die, leaving three brothers or sisters, they each take an equal part of his effects in his or her own right. But if either of them die, leaving children, his children would take his share per stirpes, that is through him, and not in their own rights.

By the Act 19 and 20 Vict., cap. 94, all special local customs relating to the estates of intestates are abolished so far as they affect personal property.

RULES OF DIVISION, ACCORDING TO THE LAW OF SCOTLAND, OF THE MOVABLE ESTATE OF A PERSON WHO HAS DIED INTESTATE.

If a person die, leaving

His movable estate is divided in the following proportions:—

Wife.....	Half to wife, other half to deceased's next-of-kin.
Wife and child, or children	{ One-third to wife, remaining two-thirds to child, or among children equally.
Wife and children, and issue of predeceasing children	{ One-third to wife, one-third to children equally, and the remaining third between the children and the issue of the predeceasing children—the children taking <i>per capita</i> , the latter <i>per stirpes</i> .*
Wife and grandchildren.....	Half to wife, and half to grandchildren equally among them.
Wife, and his children by former marriages.....	One-third to wife, two-thirds to children equally.
Wife, and her children by last and prior marriages.....	One-third to wife, remaining two-thirds to <i>deceased's</i> children.
Children	Whole to children.
Children, and issue of predeceasing children	{ Half to children, remaining half between children <i>per capita</i> , and issue <i>per stirpes</i> .
Grandchildren	Equally to all.
Children by two or more marriages	Equally to all.
Father	Whole to father.
Mother	One-third to mother, other two-thirds to next-of-kin.

* *Per capita*, i.e., by the head; *per stirpes* (by descent), i.e., through their parent and not in their own right. Where property divides *per capita*, it is divided into as many shares as there are children; where *per stirpes*, the share which would have fallen to the predeceasing parent if alive is divided equally among his children.

RULES OF DIVISION, ACCORDING TO THE LAW OF SCOTLAND, OF THE MOVABLE
ESTATE OF A PERSON WHO HAS DIED INTESATE—*continued.*

If a person die, leaving

His movable estate is divided in the following proportions:—

Father and mother	Whole to father.
Father and mother, and brothers and sisters	Half to father, half to brothers and sisters equally.
Mother, and brothers and sisters	One-third to mother, remaining two-thirds to brothers and sisters.
Father, mother, brothers, or sisters, and issue of deceased brothers or sisters	{ Half to father, half to brothers and sisters <i>per capita</i> , and issue <i>per stirpes</i> .
Mother, brothers, or sisters, and issue of deceased brothers or sisters	One-third to mother, remaining two-thirds as in last example.
Father and mother, and their grandchildren	Half to father, other half to grandchildren equally.
Mother, and her grandchildren	One-third to mother, other two-thirds to grandchildren equally.
Father, mother, children, and grandchildren of deceased brothers or sisters	{ Half to father, other half between children <i>per capita</i> , and grandchildren <i>per stirpes</i> .
Mother, children, and grandchildren of deceased brothers or sisters	{ One-third to mother, other two-thirds among children <i>per capita</i> , and grandchildren <i>per stirpes</i> .
Brothers or sisters	Equally among them.
Brothers or sisters, and nephews or nieces	Brothers or sisters <i>per capita</i> , nephews or nieces <i>per stirpes</i> .
Nephews or nieces	Equally.
Grandnephews or nieces	Equally.
Brothers or sisters of full blood, and brothers or sisters of half-blood ..	Whole to brothers and sisters of full blood.
Brothers or sisters consanguinean (that is, by same father but not same mother) and brothers or sisters uterine (that is, by same mother but not by same father)	Whole to brothers and sisters consanguinean.

RULES OF DIVISION, ACCORDING TO THE LAW OF SCOTLAND, OF THE MOVABLE ESTATE OF A PERSON WHO HAS DIED INTESTATE—*continued*.

If a person die, leaving

His movable estate is divided in the following proportions:—

Brothers or sisters consanguinean, and uncles or aunts	Whole to brothers and sisters.
Brothers and sisters uterine, and uncles or aunts	Half to brothers and sisters, other half to uncles and aunts.
Father, mother, and uncles and aunts	Whole to father.
Father, and cousins of full blood	Whole to father.
Mother, and uncles or aunts	One-third to mother, two-thirds to uncles and aunts.
Mother, and cousins of full blood	One-third to mother, two-thirds to cousins equally.
Grandfather, and uncles and aunts	Whole to uncles and aunts.
Grandfather, grandmother, and mother	One-third to mother, two-thirds to grandfather.

Where a wife dies, survived by

Her movable estate is divided in the following proportions:—

Husband	Half to husband, other half to next-of-kin.
Husband and children	One-third to husband, rest to children.
Children only	Whole to children.
Children, and issue of deceased children	{ Half to children, other half among children <i>per capita</i> , and issue <i>per stirpes</i> .
Children by two or more marriages	Equally to all.

Illegitimate children do not succeed to their father and mother, when the latter leave no will in their favour. When an illegitimate child dies without a will, and leaves neither wife nor children, his estate falls to the Crown.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE TABLES were constructed by the late Dr. Farr, of the General Register Office, and were calculated on the death-rates of 1838-54; but since that time very important changes have occurred in the death-rates at different ages; and, consequently, new tables have been constructed by Dr. W. Ogle, who succeeded Dr. Farr, on the basis of the death-rates of 1871-80. The following table gives the results both of the older and the later calculations; the first two columns in the male and female parts, respectively, giving the survivors at each year of life out of a million born of the corresponding sex, by the older and the newer calculation, and the two other columns giving similarly the expectation of life at each year.

AGE.	MALES.					FEMALES.					AGE.	
	OF 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.			MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).		OF 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.			MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).			
	1838-54.	1871-80.	2	3	4	1838-54.	1871-80.	5	6	7		8
	Column.	1	2	3	4	1838-54.	1871-80.	5	6	7		8
0	1,000,000	1,000,000		39.91	41.35	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000		41.85	44.62	0
1	836,405	841,417		46.65	48.05	865,288	871,266	871,266		47.31	50.14	1
2	782,626	790,201		48.83	50.14	811,711	820,480	820,480		49.40	52.22	2
3	754,849	763,737		49.61	50.86	782,990	793,359	793,359		50.20	52.99	3
4	736,845	746,587		49.81	51.01	764,060	775,427	775,427		50.43	53.20	4
5	723,716	734,068		49.71	50.87	750,550	762,622	762,622		50.33	53.08	5
6	713,881	726,815		49.39	50.38	740,584	755,713	755,713		50.00	52.56	6
7	706,156	721,103		48.92	49.77	732,771	750,276	750,276		49.53	51.94	7
8	699,688	716,309		48.37	49.10	726,116	745,631	745,631		48.98	51.26	8
9	694,346	712,337		47.74	48.37	720,537	741,727	741,727		48.35	50.53	9
10	689,857	708,990		47.05	47.60	715,769	738,382	738,382		47.67	49.76	10
11	685,982	706,146		46.31	46.79	711,581	735,405	735,405		46.95	48.96	11
12	682,512	703,595		45.54	45.96	707,770	732,697	732,697		46.20	48.13	12
13	679,256	701,200		44.76	45.11	704,155	730,122	730,122		45.44	47.30	13
14	676,057	698,840		43.97	44.26	700,581	727,571	727,571		44.66	46.47	14

15	672,776	696,419	43-18	43-41	696,917	724,956	43-90	45-63	15
16	669,296	693,695	42-40	42-58	693,050	722,084	43-14	44-81	16
17	665,529	690,746	41-64	41-76	688,894	718,993	42-40	44-00	17
18	661,402	687,507	40-90	40-96	684,378	715,622	41-67	43-21	18
19	656,868	683,941	40-17	40-17	679,463	711,946	40-97	42-43	19
20	651,903	680,083	39-48	39-40	674,119	707,949	40-29	41-66	20
21	646,502	675,769	38-80	38-64	668,345	703,616	39-63	40-92	21
22	641,028	671,344	38-13	37-89	662,474	699,141	38-98	40-18	22
23	635,486	666,754	37-46	37-15	656,509	694,521	38-33	39-44	23
24	629,882	661,997	36-79	36-41	650,463	689,759	37-68	38-71	24
25	624,221	657,077	36-12	35-68	644,342	684,858	37-04	37-98	25
26	618,503	651,998	35-44	34-96	638,148	679,822	36-39	37-26	26
27	612,731	646,757	34-77	34-24	631,891	674,661	35-75	36-54	27
28	606,906	641,353	34-10	33-52	625,575	669,372	35-10	35-83	28
29	601,026	635,778	33-43	32-81	619,201	663,959	34-46	35-11	29
30	595,089	630,038	32-76	32-10	612,774	658,418	33-81	34-41	30
31	589,094	624,124	32-09	31-40	606,296	652,747	33-17	33-70	31
32	583,036	618,056	31-42	30-71	599,769	646,957	32-53	33-00	32
33	576,912	611,827	30-74	30-01	593,196	641,045	31-88	32-30	33
34	570,716	605,430	30-07	29-33	586,575	635,003	31-23	31-60	34
35	564,441	598,860	29-40	28-64	579,908	628,842	30-59	30-90	35
36	558,083	592,107	28-73	27-96	573,192	622,554	29-94	30-21	36
37	551,634	585,167	28-06	27-29	566,431	616,144	29-29	29-52	37
38	545,084	578,019	27-39	26-62	559,619	609,599	28-64	28-83	38
39	538,428	570,656	26-72	25-96	552,758	602,924	27-99	28-15	39
40	531,657	563,077	26-06	25-30	545,844	596,113	27-34	27-46	40
41	524,761	555,254	25-39	24-65	538,876	589,167	26-69	26-78	41
42	517,734	547,288	24-73	24-00	531,849	582,104	26-03	26-10	42
43	510,567	539,161	24-07	23-35	524,765	574,919	25-38	25-42	43
44	503,247	530,858	23-41	22-71	517,617	567,612	24-72	24-74	44

EXPECTATION OF LIFE—continued.

AGE.	MALES.					FEMALES.					AGE.		
	Of 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.		MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).		Column.	Of 1,000,000 BORN, THE NUMBER SURVIVING AT THE END OF EACH YEAR OF LIFE.		MEAN AFTER-LIFETIME (EXPECTATION OF LIFE).					
	1898-54.	1871-80.	2	3		4	1898-54.	1871-80.	5	6		7	8
45	495,770	522,374	22-76	22-07	510,403	560,174	24-06	24-06	45				
46	488,126	513,702	22-11	21-44	503,122	552,602	23-40	23-38	46				
47	480,308	504,836	21-46	20-80	495,768	544,892	22-74	22-71	47				
48	472,306	495,761	20-82	20-18	488,339	537,043	22-08	22-03	48				
49	464,114	486,479	20-17	19-55	480,833	529,048	21-42	21-36	49				
50	455,727	476,980	19-54	18-93	473,245	520,901	20-75	20-68	50				
51	447,139	467,254	18-90	18-31	465,572	512,607	20-09	20-01	51				
52	438,099	457,022	18-28	17-71	457,814	504,188	19-42	19-34	52				
53	428,801	446,510	17-67	17-12	449,966	495,045	18-75	18-66	53				
54	419,256	435,729	17-06	16-53	442,047	486,973	18-08	17-98	54				
55	409,460	424,677	16-45	15-95	438,331	477,440	17-43	17-33	55				
56	399,408	413,351	15-86	15-37	424,239	467,443	16-79	16-69	56				
57	389,088	401,740	15-26	14-80	414,761	456,992	16-17	16-06	57				
58	378,481	389,827	14-68	14-24	404,895	446,079	15-55	15-45	58				
59	367,570	377,591	14-10	13-68	394,636	434,695	14-94	14-84	59				
60	356,380	365,011	13-53	13-14	383,974	423,835	14-34	14-24	60				
61	344,744	352,071	12-96	12-60	372,895	410,477	13-75	13-65	61				
62	332,789	338,820	12-41	12-07	361,387	397,644	13-17	13-08	62				
63	320,451	325,256	11-87	11-56	349,486	384,319	12-60	12-51	63				
64	307,720	311,368	11-34	11-05	337,031	370,495	12-05	11-96	64				
65	294,588	297,156	10-82	10-55	324,165	356,165	11-51	11-42	65				
66	281,064	282,638	10-32	10-07	310,833	341,326	10-98	10-90	66				
67	267,160	267,829	9-83	9-60	297,048	325,988	10-47	10-39	67				
68	252,901	252,763	9-36	9-14	282,819	310,170	9-97	9-89	68				
69	238,323	237,487	8-90	8-70	268,177	293,899	9-48	9-41	69				

70	223,490	222,056	845	827	253,161	277,225	902	895	70
71	208,453	206,539	803	785	237,822	260,207	857	850	71
72	193,297	190,971	762	745	222,930	242,934	813	807	72
73	178,114	175,449	722	707	206,464	225,497	771	765	73
74	163,003	160,074	685	670	190,620	208,003	731	725	74
75	148,076	144,960	649	634	174,800	190,566	693	687	75
76	133,453	130,227	615	600	159,126	173,316	656	651	76
77	119,251	115,986	582	568	143,722	156,392	621	616	77
78	105,592	102,359	551	537	128,711	139,927	588	582	78
79	92,587	89,449	521	507	114,229	124,065	556	550	79
80	80,343	77,354	493	479	100,394	108,935	526	520	80
81	68,946	66,153	466	451	87,323	94,662	498	490	81
82	58,471	55,842	441	426	75,119	81,305	471	463	82
83	48,970	46,489	417	401	63,862	68,966	445	437	83
84	40,471	38,132	395	388	53,615	57,723	421	412	84
85	32,979	30,785	373	356	44,419	47,631	398	388	85
86	26,476	24,436	353	336	36,284	38,710	376	366	86
87	20,926	19,054	334	317	29,202	30,958	356	346	87
88	16,268	14,576	316	299	23,135	24,338	336	326	88
89	12,428	10,926	300	282	18,027	18,788	318	308	89
90	9,321	8,015	284	266	13,802	14,225	301	290	90
91	6,859	5,748	269	251	10,376	10,553	285	274	91
92	4,946	4,025	255	237	7,650	7,658	270	258	92
93	3,492	2,749	241	224	5,526	5,429	255	244	93
94	2,411	1,828	229	212	3,908	3,756	242	230	94
95	1,628	1,183	217	201	2,704	2,533	229	217	95
96	1,071	742	206	190	1,827	1,661	217	211	96
97	688	452	195	181	1,204	1,037	206	203	97
98	430	266	185	172	774	653	196	183	98
99	262	151	176	165	483	389	186	173	99
100	154	82	168	161	295	225	176	162	100

THE KING AND ROYAL FAMILY.

THE KING.—EDWARD VII., of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, &c., King, Defender of the Faith. His Majesty was born November 9, 1841, and married, March 10, 1863, Alexandra of Denmark, born December 1, 1844; succeeded to the throne, January 22, 1901, on the death of his mother, Queen Victoria. The children of His Majesty are:—

1. His Royal Highness Prince Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence and Avondale, born January 8, 1864; died January 14, 1892.

2. His Royal Highness George Frederick Ernest Albert, PRINCE OF WALES, born June 3, 1865, married his cousin Princess Victoria May (Princess of Wales), only daughter of the Duke of Teck, July 6, 1893; has six children—Edward, born June 23, 1894; Albert, December 14, 1895; Victoria Alexandra, April 25, 1897; Henry William Frederick Albert, March 31, 1900; George, December 20, 1902; and John Charles Francis, July 12, 1905.

3. Her Royal Highness Louisa Victoria Alexandra Dagmar, born February 20, 1867, married, July 27, 1889, Alexander William George, Duke of Fife.

4. Her Royal Highness Victoria Alexandra Olga Mary, born July 6, 1868.

5. Her Royal Highness Maud Charlotte Mary Victoria, born November 26, 1869, married H.R.H. Prince Charles of Denmark, 1896.

6. His Royal Highness Alexander John Charles Albert, born April 6, 1871; died April 7, 1871.

PARLIAMENTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Assembled.		Dissolved.	Duration.	Assembled.		Dissolved.	Duration.		
			Yrs. m. d.				Yrs. m. d.		
GEORGE III.				VICTORIA.					
1	Sept. 27, 1796*	June 29, 1802	5 9 2	13	Nov. 15, 1837	June 23, 1841	3 7 8		
2	Oct. 29, 1802	Oct. 25, 1806	3 11 27	14	Aug. 19, 1841	July 23, 1847	5 11 4		
3	Dec. 15, 1806	April 29, 1807	0 4 14	15	Nov. 18, 1847	July 1, 1852	4 7 13		
4	June 22, 1807	Sept. 29, 1812	5 3 7	16	Nov. 4, 1852	Mar. 21, 1857	4 4 17		
5	Nov. 24, 1812	June 10, 1818	5 6 16	17	April 30, 1857	April 23, 1859	1 11 23		
6	Jan. 14, 1819	Feb. 29, 1820	1 1 15	18	May 31, 1859	July 6, 1865	6 1 6		
				19	Feb. 1, 1866	Nov. 11, 1868	2 9 10		
				20	Dec. 10, 1868	Jan. 26, 1874	5 1 16		
				21	Mar. 5, 1874	Mar. 25, 1880	6 0 20		
GEORGE IV.				22	April 29, 1880	Nov. 18, 1885	5 6 20		
7	April 23, 1820	June 2, 1826	6 1 9	23	Jan. 12, 1886	June 25, 1886	0 5 5		
8	Nov. 14, 1826	July 24, 1830	3 8 10	24	Aug. 5, 1886	June 28, 1892	5 10 24		
				25	Aug. 4, 1892	July 24, 1895	2 11 20		
				26	Aug. 12, 1895	Sept. 25, 1900	5 1 13		
WILLIAM IV.									
9	Oct. 26, 1830	April 22, 1831	0 5 27	27	Dec. 3, 1900	Jan. 8, 1906	5 1 5		
10	June 14, 1831	Dec. 3, 1832	1 5 9		Jan. 22, 1901				
11	Jan. 29, 1833	Dec. 30, 1834	1 11 1		Feb. 19, 1906				
12	Feb. 19, 1835	July 17, 1837	2 4 28	28					

LIST OF ADMINISTRATIONS FROM DECEMBER, 1783.

Date.	Prime Minister.	Dura- tion.	Chancellor.	Exchequer.	Home Secretary.	Foreign Sec.
Dec. 23, 1783	William Pitt	Yrs. Dys. 17 84	{Thurlow .. {Loughboro	William Pitt ..	Portland	Grenville.
Mar. 17, 1801	Hy. Addington ..	3 59	Eldon	H. Addington..	{Portland, Pel ham, C. Yorke	Hawkesbury.
May 15, 1804	William Pitt	1 272	Eldon	William Pitt ..	Hawkesbury ..	{Harrowby. {Mulgrave.
Feb. 11, 1806	Lord Grenville ..	1 48	Erskine....	Lord H. Petty..	Spencer..	{Chas. J. Fox {Visct. Howick
Mar. 31, 1807	Duke of Portland.	2 246	Eldon	S. Perceval ..	Hawkesbury ..	G. Canning.
Dec. 2, 1809	Spencer Perceval.	2 190	Eldon	S. Perceval ..	R. Ryder	{Bathurst. {Wellesley.
June 9, 1812	Earl of Liverpool.	14 319	Eldon	{N. Vansittart.. {F. J. Robinson.	Sidmouth	Castlereagh. G. Canning.
Apr. 24, 1827	George Canning..	0 134	Lyndhurst..	G. Canning ..	{Sturges Bourne. {Lansdowne	Dudley.
Sept. 5, 1827	Visct. Goderich ..	0 142	Lyndhurst..	J. C. Herries ..	Lansdowne	Dudley.
Jan. 25, 1828	D. of Wellington..	2 301	Lyndhurst..	H. Goulburn ..	Robert Peel....	{Dudley. {Aberdeen.
Nov. 22, 1830	Earl Grey.....	3 238	Brougham..	Althorp	Melbourne	Palmerston.
July 18, 1834	Visct. Melbourne.	0 161	Brougham..	Althorp	Duncannon	Palmerston.
Dec. 26, 1834	Sir Robert Peel ..	0 113	Lyndhurst..	Sir R. Peel....	H. Goulburn ..	Wellington.
Apr. 18, 1835	Visct. Melbourne.	6 141	{In Comm... {Cottenham.	T. S. Rice..... F. T. Barrington.	Lord J. Russell ..	Palmerston.
Sept. 6, 1841	Sir Robert Peel ..	4 303	Lyndhurst..	H. Goulburn ..	Sir J. Graham..	Aberdeen.
July 6, 1846	Ld. John Russell.	5 236	{Cottenham. {Truro.....	Sir C. Wood ..	Sir George Grey	{Palmerston. {Granville.
Feb. 27, 1852	Earl of Derby....	0 305	St Leonards	B. Disraeli....	S. H. Walpole..	Malmesbury.
Dec. 28, 1852	Earl of Aberdeen.	2 44	Cranworth..	W. Gladstone..	Palmerston	{Lord J. Russell {Clarendon.
Feb. 10, 1855	Lord Palmerston.	3 15	Cranworth..	{W. Gladstone.. {Sir G. C. Lewis.	Sir George Grey	Clarendon.
Feb. 25, 1858	Earl of Derby....	1 113	Chelmsford.	B. Disraeli....	S. H. Walpole..	Malmesbury.
June 18, 1859	Lord Palmerston.	6 141	{Campbell.. {Westbury..	W. Gladstone ..	{Sir G. C. Lewis.. {Sir George Grey	Russell.
Nov. 6, 1865	Earl Russell	0 242	Cranworth..	W. Gladstone..	Sir George Grey	Clarendon.
July 6, 1866	Earl of Derby....	1 236	Chelmsford.	B. Disraeli....	{S. H. Walpole.. {Gathorne Hardy	Stanley.
Feb. 27, 1868	Benjamin Disraeli	0 285	Cairns	G. W. Hunt ..	G. Hardy	Stanley.
Dec. 9, 1868	W. E. Gladstone..	5 74	{Hatherley.. {Selborne ..	Robert Lowe W. E. Gladstone.	H. A. Bruce	Clarendon. Granville.
Feb. 21, 1874	{Benjamin Disraeli {Earl Beaconsfield.	6 67	Cairns	S. Northcote ..	R. A. Cross	{Derby. {Salisbury.
Apr. 28, 1880	W. E. Gladstone..	5 57	Selborne ..	{W. Gladstone.. {H. C. E. Childers	Sir W. Harcourt	Granville.
June 24, 1885	Marq. of Salisbury	0 227	Halsbury ..	Hicks-Beach..	R. A. Cross	Salisbury.
Feb. 7, 1886	W. E. Gladstone..	0 139	Herschel ..	W. V. Harcourt	H. C. E. Childers	Rosebery.
July 24, 1886	Marq. of Salisbury	6 17	Halsbury ..	{Lord Churchill {G. J. Goschen..	H. Matthews ..	{Iddesleigh. {Salisbury.
Aug. 15, 1892	W. E. Gladstone..	} 2 313	Herschel ..	W. V. Harcourt	H. H. Asquith..	{Rosebery. {Kimberley.
Mar. 3, 1894	Earl of Rosebery..					
June 24, 1895	Marq. of Salisbury	} 11 165	Halsbury {	{Hicks-Beach.. {C. T. Ritchie.. {A. Chamberlain	{Sir M. W. Ridley {C. T. Ritchie.. A. Akers Douglas	{Salisbury. {Lansdowne. Lansdowne.
July 12, 1902	A. J. Balfour					
Dec. 5, 1905	Sir H. Campbell- Bannerman.....	} ..	Sir R. Reid	H. H. Asquith	H. J. Gladstone	Sir Ed. Grey.

HIS MAJESTY'S MINISTERS.

Prime Minister	} SIR H. CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN.
First Lord of the Treasury	
Lord Chancellor	LORD LOREBURN.
Lord President of the Council	EARL OF CREWE.
Lord Privy Seal	MARQUIS OF RIPON.
Chancellor of the Exchequer	H. H. ASQUITH.
Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs ...	SIR EDWARD GREY.
Secretary of State for Home Department ...	HERBERT GLADSTONE.
Secretary of State for Colonial Affairs	EARL OF ELGIN.
Secretary of State for War	R. B. HALDANE.
Secretary of State for India.....	JOHN MORLEY.
Secretary for Scotland	JOHN SINCLAIR.
First Lord of the Admiralty	LORD TWEEDMOUTH.
Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant .	JAMES BRYCE.
Postmaster-General	SYDNEY BUXTON.
President of the Board of Education	AUGUSTINE BIRRELL.
President of the Board of Trade	D. LLOYD-GEORGE.
President of the Local Government Board .	JOHN BURNS.
President of the Board of Agriculture....	EARL CARRINGTON.

The above form the Cabinet.

Lord Lieutenant of Ireland	EARL OF ABERDEEN.
Lord Chancellor of Ireland	SAMUEL WALKER.
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster	SIR HENRY H. FOWLER.
First Commissioner of Works.....	LEWIS HARCOURT.
Junior Lords of the Treasury	{ J. A. PEASE.
	{ J. HERBERT LEWIS.
	{ CAPTAIN C. W. NORTON.
Financial Secretary to the Treasury	REGINALD McKENNA.
Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury ..	GEORGE WHITELEY.
Paymaster-General	R. K. CAUSTON.
Secretary to the Admiralty	EDMUND ROBERTSON.
Civil Lord of the Admiralty	GEORGE LAMBERT.
Parliamentary Secretary to Board of Trade	HUDSON E. KEARLEY.
Parliamentary Secretary to Local Govern- ment Board	W. RUNCIMAN.
Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs.....	LORD FITZMAURICE OF LEIGH.
Under Secretary for Home Affairs	HERBERT L. SAMUEL.
Under Secretary for the Colonies	WINSTON S. CHURCHILL.

HIS MAJESTY'S MINISTERS—*continued.*

Under Secretary for India	JOHN E. ELLIS.
Under Secretary for War	EARL OF PORTSMOUTH.
Financial Secretary to War Office	T. R. BUCHANAN.
Parliamentary Secretary to Board of Education	THOMAS LOUGH.
Attorney-General	SIR LAWSON WALTON.
Solicitor-General	SIR W. S. ROBSON.
Lord Advocate of Scotland	THOMAS SHAW.
Solicitor-General for Scotland	ALEX. URE.
Attorney-General for Ireland	R. R. CHERRY.
Solicitor-General for Ireland	REDMOND J. BARRY.

PRIME MINISTERS SINCE 1834.

Sir Robert Peel	Dec. 15, 1834	Mr. Gladstone	Dec. 9, 1868
Viscount Melbourne .	April 18, 1835	Earl Beaconsfield	Feb. 21, 1874
Sir Robert Peel	Aug. 31, 1841	Mr. Gladstone	April 29, 1880
Lord John Russell....	July 6, 1846	and Ch. of Ex. to	April, 1883.
Earl of Derby	Feb. 27, 1852	Marquis of Salisbury.	June 24, 1885
Earl of Aberdeen	Dec. 28, 1852	Mr. Gladstone	Feb. 2, 1886
Viscount Palmerston	Feb. 26, 1855	Marquis of Salisbury.	Aug. 3, 1886
Earl of Derby	Feb. 26, 1858	Mr. Gladstone	Aug. 15, 1892
Viscount Palmerston	June 18, 1859	Earl Rosebery	Mar. 3, 1894
Earl Russell	Oct. 28, 1865	Marquis of Salisbury.	June 25, 1895
Earl of Derby	July 8, 1866	Mr. A. J. Balfour.....	July 12, 1902
Mr. Disraeli, Mar. to Dec.,	1868	Sir H. C.-Bannerman,	Dec. 5, 1905

Twenty-two changes of Government have taken place since the beginning of 1834, but in that time only twelve men have been Premiers, and of these the Earl of Rosebery, Mr. Balfour, and Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman are the sole survivors. Mr. Gladstone had been Premier longer than any other statesman since the Earl of Liverpool, who held office nearly fifteen years in succession.

In 1885 the number of members of the Lower House was finally fixed at 670, as against 658 in previous years; England returning 465, Wales 30, Scotland 72, and Ireland 103 members. The previous distribution had been—England 469, Wales 30, Scotland 60, and Ireland 103 seats. There are now 377 county members, as against 283; 284 borough members, as against 360; and 9 University members, as against 9.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS,

AS ELECTED JANUARY, 1906,

WITH CORRECTIONS TO NOVEMBER 1st, 1906.

"LR" means a member of the Labour group formed of the nominees of the Labour Representation Committee. "Lab." indicates the Liberal and Labour members sitting on the Government side of the House.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Abraham, W.	Cork, North-East	N
Abraham, William	Glamorgan, Rhondda Valley ...	Lab.
Acland, Francis D.	Yorks., Richmond	L
Acland-Hood, Sir A., Bart.	Somerset, West, Wellington ...	C
Adkins, W. R.	Lancashire, Middleton	L
Agnew, G. W.	Salford, West	L
Ainsworth, J. S.	Argyllshire	L
Akers-Douglas, Rt. Hon.	Kent, St. Augustine's	C
Alden, Percy	Middlesex, Tottenham	Lab.
Allen, A. Acland	Christchurch	L
Allen, C. P.	Gloucestershire, Stroud	L
Ambrose, Dr. R.	Mayo, West	N
Anson, Sir W. R.	Oxford University	LU
Anstruther-Gray, Major	St. Andrews Burghs	LU
Arkwright, John S.	Hereford	C
Armitage, R.	Leeds, Central	L
Arnold-Forster, H. O.	Croydon	LU
Ashley, Wilfrid W.	Lancs., Blackpool	C
Ashton, T. G.	Bedfordshire, Luton.	L
Asquith, Rt. Hon. H. H.	Fifeshire, East	L
Astbury, J. M.	Lancs., Southport.	L
Atherley-Jones, L.	Durham, North-West	L
Aubrey-Fletcher, Rt. Hon. Sir H. .	Sussex, Lewes	C
Baker, J. A.	Finsbury, East	L
Baker, Sir John	Portsmouth	L
Balcarres, Lord	Lancs., North, Chorley	C
Baldwin, Alfred	Worcester, W., Bewdley	C
Balfour, Rt. Hon. A. J.	London City	C
Balfour, Chas. B.	Middlesex, Hornsey	C
Balfour, R.	Lanark, Partick	L
Banbury, Sir F.	London City	C
Banner, J. S. Harwood- (see Harwood-Banner).		
Baring, Godfrey	Isle of Wight	L
Baring, Capt. the Hon. G.	Winchester	C
Barker, John	Penryn and Falmouth	L
Barlow, John Emmott	Somerset, Frome	L
Barlow, Percy	Bedford.	L
Barnard, E. B.	Kidderminster	L
Barnes, G. N.	Glasgow, Blackfriars	LR
Barratt (see Layland-Barratt).		
Barran, R. H.	Leeds, North	L

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Barrie, Hugh T.	Londonderry, North	C
Barry, E.	Cork Co., South	N
Beach, M. H. Hicks	Glos., Tewkesbury	C
Beale, W. Phipson	Ayrshire, South	L
Beauchamp, Edward	Suffolk, Lowestoft	L
Beaumont, H.	Sussex, Eastbourne	L
Beaumont, W. C. B.	Northumberland, Hexham	L
Beck, A. C.	Cambs., Wisbech	L
Beckett, W. Gervase	Yorks., Whitby	C
Bell, R.	Derby	Lab.
Bellairs, Lieut. Carlyon	King's Lynn	L
Belloc, Hilaire	Salford, South	L
Benn, J. Williams	Devonport	L
Benn, W. Wedgwood	St. George's-in-the-East	L
Bennett, E. N.	Oxfordshire, Woodstock	L
Berridge, T. H. D.	Warwick and Leamington	L
Bertram, Julius	Herts., Hitchin	L
Bethell, J. H.	Essex, Romford	L
Bethell, T. R.	Essex, Maldon	L
Bignold, Sir A.	Wick Burghs	C
Billson, A.	Staffs., North-West	L
Birrell, Rt. Hon. A.	Bristol, North	L
Black, Alex. W.	Banffshire	L
Black, Arthur W.	Beds., Biggleswade	L
Blake, Hon. E.	Longford, South	N
Boland, J. P.	Kerry, South	N
Bolton, T. D.	Derby, North-East	L
Bottomley, Horatio	Hackney, South	L
Boulton, A. C.	Hunts., Ramsey	L
Bowerman, C. W.	Deptford	LR
Bowles, G. Stewart	Lambeth, Norwood	C
Boyle, Sir Edward	Taunton	C
Brace, W.	Glams., South	Lab.
Bramsdon, T.	Portsmouth	L
Branch, Jas.	Middlesex, Enfield	L
Bridgeman, W. C.	Shropshire, Oswestry	C
Brigg, John	Yorks., W.R., Keighley	L
Bright, J. A.	Oldham	L
Brocklehurst, W. B.	Cheshire, Macclesfield	L
Brodie, H. C.	Surrey, Reigate	L
Brooke, Stopford W. W.	Bow and Bromley	L
Brotherton, E. A.	Wakefield	C
Brunner, J. F. L.	Lancs., South-West, Leigh	L
Brunner, Sir J. T.	Cheshire, Northwich	L
Bryce, J. Annan	Inverness Burghs	L
Bryce, Rt. Hon. Jas.	Aberdeen, South	L
Buchanan, T. R.	Perthshire, East	L
Buckmaster, S. O.	Cambridge	L
Bull, Sir W. J.	Hammersmith	C
Burdett-Coutts, W. L. A.	Westminster	C
Burke, E. Haviland- (see Haviland)	d-Burke, E.)	
Burns, Rt. Hon. John	Battersea	Lab.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Burnyeat, W. J. D.	Whitehaven	L
Burt, Rt. Hon. Thomas	Morpeth	Lab.
Butcher, S. H.	Cambridge University	C
Buxton, Sydney C.	Tower Hamlets, Poplar	L
Byles, W. P.	Salford, North	L
Cairns, Thomas	Newcastle-on-Tyne	L
Caldwell, J.	Lanarkshire, Mid.	L
Cameron, Robert	Durham, Houghton-le-Spring... ..	L
Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Henry	Stirling Burghs	L
Campbell, J. H. M.	Dublin University	C
Carlile, Col. E. H.	Herts., St. Albans	C
Carr-Gomm, H. W.	Southwark, Rotherhithe	L
Carson, Sir Edward H.	Dublin University	C
Castlereagh, Viscount	Maidstone	C
Causton, Rt. Hon. R. K.	Southwark, West	L
Cave, George	Surrey, Kingston	C
Cavendish, Victor C. W.	Derbyshire, West	LU
Cawley, F.	Lancs., Prestwich	L
Cecil, Evelyn	Aston Manor	C
Cecil, Lord J. Joicey	Lincolnshire, Stamford	C
Cecil, Lord Robert	Marylebone, East	C
Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. J.	Birmingham, West	LU
Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. J. Austen..	Worcester, East	LU
Chance, F. W.	Carlisle	L
Channing, F. A.	Northamptonshire, East	L
Cheetham, J. F.	Stalybridge	L
Cherry, R. R.	Liverpool, Exchange	L
Churchill, Winston L. S.	Manchester, North-West	L
Clancy, J. J.	Dublin Co., North	N
Clarke, C. Goddard	Camberwell, Peckham	L
Cleland, J. W.	Glasgow, Bridgeton	L
Clough, W.	Yorks., Skipton	L
Clynes, J. R.	Manchester, North-East	LR
Coates, Major E. F.	Lewisham	C
Coats, Sir T. Glen	Renfrewshire, West	L
Cobbold, Felix	Ipswich	L
Cochrane, Hon. T.	Ayrshire, North	LU
Cogan, D. J.	Wicklow, East	N
Collings, Rt. Hon. J.	Birmingham, Bordesley	LU
Collins, Stephen	Lambeth, Kennington	L
Collins, Sir W. J.	Sf. Pancras, West	L
Condon, T. J.	Tipperary, East	N
Cooper, G. J.	Southwark, Bermondsey	L
Corbett, A. Cameron	Glasgow, Tradeston	LU
Corbett, C. H.	Sussex, East Grinstead	L
Corbett, T. L.	Down, North	C
Cornwall, Sir E.	Bethnal Green, North-East	L
Cory, Clifford J.	Cornwall, St. Ives	L
Cotton, Sir H. J. S.	Nottingham, East	L
Courthope, G. Loyd	Sussex, Rye	C
Cowan, W. H.	Surrey, Guildford	L

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Cox, Harold.....	Preston	L
Craig, C. C.	Antrim, South.....	C
Craig, H. J.	Tynemouth	L
Craig, Capt. J.	Down, East	C
Craik, Sir H.	Glasgow University	C
Crean, E.	Cork Co., South-East	N
Cremer, W. R.	Shoreditch, Haggerston	Lab.
Crombie, J. W.....	Kincardineshire	L
Crooks, William	Woolwich	LR
Crosfield, A. H.	Warrington	L
Cross, Alex.	Glasgow, Camlachie	LU
Crossley, W. J.	Cheshire, Altrincham	L
Cullinan, John	Tipperary, South	N
Dalmeny, Lord	Edinburghshire	L
Dalrymple, Viscount	Wigtownshire.....	C
Dalziel, J. H.	Kirkcaldy Burghs.....	L
Davies, David	Montgomeryshire	L
Davies, Ellis W.	Carnarvon, Eifion	L
Davies, M. Vaughan-	Cardiganshire	L
Davies, Timothy	Fulham	L
Davies, T. Hart	Hackney, North	L
Davies, W. Howell	Bristol, South	L
Delany, W.	Queen's Co., Ossory.....	N
Devlin, C. R.	Galway City	N
Dewar, Arthur	Edinburgh, South.....	L
Dewar, John A.	Inverness-shire.....	L
Dickinson, W. H.....	St. Pancras, North	L
Dickson-Poynder, Sir J.	Wiltshire, Chippenham	L
Dilke, Rt. Hon. Sir C. W.	Gloucester, Forest of Dean	L
Dillon, John	Mayo, East	N
Dixon, Sir Daniel.....	Belfast, North	C
Dixon-Hartland, Sir F.	Middlesex, Uxbridge	C
Dobson, Thomas	Plymouth	L
Dodd, Serjeant W. H.	Tyrone, North.....	L
Dolan, Charles J.	Leitrim, North	N
Donelan, Capt. A. J. C.	Cork Co., East	N
Doughty, Sir George	Great Grimsby	LU
Du Cros, Harvey	Hastings	C
Duckworth, Jas.	Stockport	L
Duffy, W. J.	Galway, South	N
Duncan, Charles	Barrow-in-Furness	LR
Duncan, J. H.	Yorks., W.R., Otley	L
Duncan, R.	Lanark, Govan	C
Dunn, A. E.	Cornwall, Camborne.....	L
Dunne, Major E. M.	Walsall	L
Edwards, A. Clement	Denbigh District.....	L
Edwards, Enoch	Hanley	Lab.
Edwards, F.	Radnorshire	L
Ellis, J. E.	Nottingham, Rushcliffe	L
Emmott, Alfred	Oldham	L

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Erskine, David	Perthshire, West	L
Esmonde, Sir T. G., Bart.	Wexford, North	N
Essex, R. W.	Gloucestershire, East	L
Evans, S. T.	Glamorganshire, Mid	L
Eve, H. T.	Devon, Ashburton	L
Everett, R. L.	Suffolk, Woodbridge	L
Faber, G. Denison	York	C
Faber, G. H.	Boston	L
Faber, Capt. W. V.	Hants., Andover	C
Fardell, Sir T. G.	Paddington, South	C
Farrell, J. Patrick	Longford, North	N
Fell, Arthur	Great Yarmouth	C
Fenwick, C.	Northumberland, Wansbeck....	Lab.
Ferens, T. R.	Hull, East	L
Fetherstonhaugh, G.	Fermanagh, North	C
Ffrench, Peter	Wexford, South	N
Field, William	Dublin, St. Patrick's	N
Fiennes, Hon. E.	Oxfordshire, Banbury	L
Finch, Rt. Hon. G. H.	Rutlandshire	C
Findlay, A.	Lanark, North-East	L
Flavin, Michael J.	Kerry, North	N
Fletcher, Sir H. (see Aubrey-Fletcher).		
Fletcher, J. S.	Hampstead	C
Flynn, J. C.	Cork Co., North	N
Forster, H. W.	Kent, Sevenoaks	C
Foster, Sir Walter	Derbyshire, Ilkeston	L
Fowler, Rt. Hon. Sir H.	Wolverhampton, East	L
Fuller, J. M. F.	Wilts., Westbury	L
Fullerton, Hugh	Cumberland, Egremont	L
Furniss, Sir Chris.	Hartlepool	L
Gardner, Col. Alan	Herefordshire, Ross	L
Gardner, Ernest	Berkshire, East, Wokingham...	C
Gibb, J.	Middlesex, Harrow	L
Gibbs, G. A.	Bristol, West	C
Gilhooly, James	Cork Co., West	N
Gill, A. H.	Bolton	LR
Ginnell, L.	Westmeath, North	N
Gladstone, Rt. Hon. H. J.	Leeds, West	N
Glendinning, R.	Antrim, North	L
Glen-Coats, Sir T. (see Coats, Sir T. Glover, Thomas	Glen-). St. Helens	LR
Goddard, D. Ford	Ipswich	L
Gooch, G. P.	Bath	L
Gordon, John	Londonderry, South	LU
Gordon, Sir W. Evans	Tower Hamlets, Stepney	C
Grant, Corrie	Warwickshire, Rugby	L
Greenwood, G. G.	Peterborough	L
Greenwood, Hamar	York	L
Grey, Sir E., Bart.	Northumberland, Berwick	L
Griffith, Ellis J.	Anglesey	L

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Grove, Archibald	Northamptonshire, North	L
Guest, Hon. Ivor C.	Cardiff	L
Gulland, J. W.	Dumfries Burghs	L
Gurdon, Sir W. B.	Norfolk, North	L
Gwynn, S.	Galway	N
Haddock, G. B.	Lancs., North Lonsdale	LU
Haldane, Rt. Hon. R. B.	Haddingtonshire	L
Hall, Fred.	Yorks., Normanton	Lab.
Halpin, Jas.	Clare, West	N
Hambro, C. Eric	Surrey, N.-E., Wimbledon ...	C
Hamilton, Marquis of	Londonderry, City	C
Hammond, John	Carlow	N
Harcourt, Lewis V.	Lancs., N.-E., Rossendale	L
Hardie, J. Keir	Merthyr Tydvil	LR
Hardy, G. A.	Suffolk, Stowmarket	L
Hardy, Laurence	Kent, Ashford	C
Harmood-Banner, J. S.	Liverpool, Everton	C
Harmsworth, Cecil B.	Worcester, Droitwich	L
Harmsworth, R. L.	Caitness-shire	L
Harrington, T.	Dublin City, Harbour Division...	N
Harrison-Broadley, H. B.	Yorks., Howdenshire	C
Harvey, A. G. C.	Rochdale	L
Harwood, George	Bolton	L
Haslam, James	Derbyshire, Chesterfield	L
Haslam, Lewis	Monmouth District	L
Haviland-Burke, E.	King's Co., Tullamore	N
Haworth, A. A.	Manchester, South	L
Hay, Hon. Claude	Shoreditch, Hoxton	C
Hayden, John P.	Roscommon, South	N
Hazel, Dr. A. E. W.	West Bromwich	L
Hazleton, Richard	Galway, North	N
Healy, T. M.	Louth, North	N
Heaton, J. Henniker	Canterbury	C
Heaton-Armstrong, W. C.	Suffolk, Sudbury	L
Hedges, A. P.	Kent, Tunbridge	L
Helme, Norval Watson	Lancs., North, Lancaster	L
Helmsley, Viscount	Yorks., Thirsk and Malton ...	C
Hemmerde, E. G.	Denbigh, East	L
Henderson, Arthur	Durham, Barnard Castle	LR
Henderson, J. Mc.D.	Aberdeenshire, West	L
Henry, C. S.	Shropshire, Wellington	L
Herbert, Col. Ivor	Monmouth, South	L
Herbert, T. A.	Bucks., Wycombe	L
Hervey, Capt. F. W.	Bury St. Edmunds	C
Higham, J. S.	Yorks., Sowerby	L
Hill, Sir Clement	Shrewsbury	C
Hill, H. Staveley	Staffs., Kingswinford	C
Hills, J. W.	Durham City	LU
Hobart, Sir Robert	Hants., New Forest	L
Hobhouse, C. E.	Bristol, East	L

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Hodge, J.	Lancs., Gorton	LR
Hogan, Michael.....	Tipperary, North	N
Holden, E. H.	Lancs., Heywood	L
Holland, Sir W. H.	Yorks., W.R., Rotherham	L
Hooper, A. G.	Dudley	L
Hope, John Deans	Fifeshire, West	L
Hope, W. Bateman	Somerset, North	L
Hornby, Sir W. H.	Blackburn	C
Horniman, E. J.	Chelsea	L
Horridge, T. G.	Manchester, East	L
Houston, R. P.	Liverpool, West Toxteth	C
Howard, Hon. G.	Cumberland, Eskdale	L
Hudson, Walter	Newcastle-on-Tyne	LR
Hunt, Rowland.....	Shropshire, Ludlow	LU
Hutton, A. E.	Yorks., W.R., Morley	L
Hyde, Clarendon G.	Wedgesbury	L
Idris, T. H.	Flint District.....	L
Illingworth, P. H.	Yorks., Shipley	L
Isaacs, Rufus	Reading	L
Jackson, R. S.	Greenwich	L
Jacoby, James A.	Derbyshire, Mid	L
Jardine, Sir J.	Roxburghshire	L
Jenkins, J.	Chatham	LR
Johnson, John	Gateshead	Lab.
Johnson, William	Warwick, Nuneaton	Lab.
Joicey-Cecil, Lord J. (see Cecil,	Lord J. Joicey-).	
Jones, D. Brynmor	Swansea District.....	L
Jones, Leif	Westmorland, Appleby	L
Jones, William	Carnarvon, North, Arvon	L
Jordan, J.	Fermanagh, South	N
Jowett, F. W.	Bradford, West	LR
Joyce, Alderman M.	Limerick City	N
Kearley, H. E.	Devonport	L
Kekewich, Sir G.	Exeter	L
Kelley, G. D.	Manchester, South-West	LR
Kennaway, Sir J., Bart.	Devonshire, East, Honiton	C
Kennedy, V. P.	Cavan, West	N
Kenyon-Slaney, Col.	Shropshire, Newport	C
Keswick, William	Surrey, Mid, Epsom	C
Kettle, T. M.	Tyrone, East.....	N
Kilbride, D.	Kildare, South	N
Kimber, Sir H.	Wandsworth	C
Kincaid-Smith, Capt.	Warwick, Stratford	L
King, A. J.	Cheshire, Knutsford	L
King, Sir H. S.	Hull, Central	C
Kitson, Sir J., Bart.	Yorks., W.R., S., Colne Valley...	L
Laidlaw, R.	Renfrewshire, East.....	L
Lamb, Edmund	Hereford, Leominster	L

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Lamb, Ernest	Rochester	L
Lambert, G.	Devon, South Molton	L
Lambton, Hon. F. W.	Durham, South-East	LU
Lamont, Norman	Buteshire	L
Lane-Fox, G. R.	Yorks., Barkston Ash	C
Langley, Batty	Sheffield, Attercliffe	L
Law, Bonar	Dulwich	LU
Law, Hugh A.	Donegal, West	N
Layland-Barratt, F.	Devon, Torquay	L
Lea, Hugh C.	St. Pancras, East	L
Lee, A. H.	Hampshire, Fareham	C
Lehmann, R. C.	Leicestershire, Harboro'	L
Leese, Sir J. F.	Lancs., N.-E., Accrington	L
Lever, W. H.	Cheshire, Wirral	L
Levy-Lever, A. L.	Essex, Harwich.....	L
Levy, Maurice	Leicestershire, Loughboro'	L
Lewis, J. H.	Flint District.....	L
Liddell, H.	Down, West	C
Lloyd-George, D.	Carnarvon District	L
Lockwood, Rt. Hon. M.	Essex, West, Epping	C
Long, Col. C. W.	Worcester, South, Evesham....	C
Long, Rt. Hon. W. H.	Dublin, South	C
Lonsdale, John B.	Armagh, Mid	C
Lough, Thomas.....	Islington, West	L
Lowe, Sir Francis W.	Birmingham, Edgbaston	C
Lowther, Rt. Hon. J. W.	Cumberland, Mid, Penrith	C
Lundon, W.	Limerick Co., East	N
Lupton, Arnold.....	Lincolnshire, Sleaford	L
Luttrell, H. F.	Devonshire, Tavistock	L
Lyell, C.	Dorset, East	L
Lynch, H. F. B.	Yorks., Ripon	L
Lyttleton, A.	St. George's, Hanover Square..	C
M'Arthur, W. A.	Cornwall, Mid, St. Austell	L
Mc.Calmont, Col. J.	Antrim, East	C
Mc.Callum, J. M.	Paisley	L
Mc.Crae, G.	Edinburgh, East	L
Macdonald, J. Murray	Falkirk Burghs	L
Macdonald, J. R.	Leicester	LR
MacIver, D.	Liverpool, Kirkdale	C
Mc.Iver, Sir L.	Edinburgh, West	LU
Mackarness, F. C.	Berkshire, Newbury	L
M'Kean, John	Monaghan, South	N
Mc.Kenna, R.	Monmouthshire, North	L
Mc.Killop, William.....	Armagh, South	N
Maclean, Donald.....	Bath	L
Mc.Laren, Sir C. B.	Leicester, West, Bosworth	L
MacLaren, H. D.	Staffs., West	L
Mc.Micking, Major G.	Kirkcudbrightshire	L
Macnamara, Dr. T. J.	Camberwell, North	L
Macpherson, J. T.:.....	Preston	LR
MacNeill, J. G. Swift	Donegal, South	N

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
MacVeagh, Chas.	Donegal, East	N
MacVeagh, Jeremiah	Down, South	N
Maddison, F. W.	Burnley	Lab.
Magnus, Sir P.	London University	LU
Mallet, C. E.	Plymouth	L
Manfield, Harry	Northampton, East	L
Mansfield, H. R.	Lincolnshire, Spalding	L
Markham, A. B.	Notts., Mansfield	L
Marks, G. Croydon	Cornwall, Launceston	L
Marks, H. H.	Kent, Isle of Thanet	C
Marnham, F. J.	Surrey, Chertsey	L
Mason, A. E. Woodley	Coventry	L
Mason, J. Francis	Windsor	C
Massie, Dr. J.	Wilts., Cricklade	L
Masterman, C. F. G.	West Ham, North	L
Meager, Michael	Kilkenny, North	N
Meehan, P. A.	Queen's Co., Leix	N
Menzies, W.	Lanark, South	L
Meysey-Thompson, E. C.	Staffs., Handsworth	LU
Micklem, N.	Herts., Watford	L
Middlemore, J. T.	Birmingham, North	LU
Mildmay, F. B.	Devonshire, South, Totnes	LU
Mitchell-Thomson, W.	Lanark, North-West	C
Molteno, Percy A.	Dumfriesshire	L
Mond, Alfred	Chester	L
Money, L. G. Chiozza-	Paddington, North	L
Montagu, E. S.	Cambs., Chesterton	L
Montgomery, H. G.	Somerset, Bridgwater	L
Mooney, J. J.	Newry	N
Moore, W.	Armagh, North	LU
Morgan, G. Hay	Cornwall, Truro	L
Morgan, J. Lloyd	Carmarthenshire, West	L
Morley, Rt. Hon. John	Montrose Burghs	L
Morse, L. L.	Wilts., Wilton	L
Morpeth, Viscount	Birmingham, South	LU
Morrell, Philip	Oxfordshire, Henley	L
Morton, A. C.	Sutherland	L
Munro-Ferguson, R. C.	Leith Burghs	L
Muntz, Sir P. A.	Warwicks., North, Tamworth...	C
Murnaghan, G.	Tyrone, Mid	N
Murphy, John	Kerry, East	N
Murray, Hon. A. O.	Peebles and Selkirk	L
Murray, James	Aberdenshire, East	L
Myer, Horatio	Lambeth, North	L
Nannetti, J. P.	Dublin, College Green	N
Napier, T. B.	Kent, Faversham	L
Newnes, Frank	Notts., Bassetlaw	L
Newnes, Sir G.	Swansea Town	L
Nicholls, George	Northamptonshire, North	L
Nicholson, C. N.	Yorks., Doncaster	L
Nicholson, W. Grant	Hampshire, East, Petersfield...	C

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Nield, Herbert	Middlesex, Ealing	C
Nolan, Jos.	Louth, South.....	N
Norton, Capt. C.	Newington, West	L
Norman, Henry	Wolverhampton, South	L
Nussey, T. W.	Pontefract	L
Nuttall, H.	Lancs., Stretford	L
O'Brien, Kendall	Tipperary, Mid	N
O'Brien, Patrick	Kilkenny	N
O'Brien, William	Cork, City	N
O'Connor, James	Wicklow, West	N
O'Connor, John	Kildare, North	N
O'Connor, T. P.	Liverpool, Scotland	N
O'Doherty, Philip.....	Donegal, North	N
O'Donnell, C. J.	Newington, Walworth	L
O'Donnell, John	Mayo, South	N
O'Donnell, Thomas	Kerry, West	N
O'Dowd, John.....	Sligo, South	N
O'Grady, J.	Leeds, East	LR
O'Hare, Patrick	Monaghan, North	N
O'Kelly, Conor	Mayo, North	N
O'Kelly, J. J.	Roscommon, North	N
O'Malley, William	Galway, Connemara	N
O'Mara, James	Kilkenny Co., South	N
O'Neill, Hon. Robert T.....	Antrim, Mid	C
O'Shaughnessy, P. J.	Limerick, West	N
O'Shee, J. J.	Waterford, West.....	N
Osmond-Williams, A. (see William s, A. Osmond-).		
Palmer, Sir C. M. Bart.....	Durham, Jarrow	L
Parker, Sir Gilbert.....	Gravesend	C
Parker, J.	Halifax	LR
Parkes, E.	Birmingham, Central	LU
Partington, O.	Derbyshire, High Peak	L
Paul, Herbert	Northampton	L
Paulton, J. M.	Durham, Bishop Auckland ...	L
Pearce, Robert	Staffs., Leek	L
Pearce, William	Tower Hamlets, Limehouse ...	L
Pearson, H.	Suffolk, Eye	L
Pearson, Sir W.	Colchester	L
Pease, H. Pike	Darlington	LU
Pease, Joseph A.	Essex, Saffron Walden	L
Percy, Earl	Kensington, South	C
Perks, R. W.	Lincolnshire, Louth	L
Philipps, Col. Ivor	Southampton	L
Philipps, J. W.	Pembrokeshire	L
Philipps, Owen C.	Pembroke and Haverfordwest...	L
Pickersgill, E. H.	Bethnal Green, South-West ...	L
Pirie, V. Duncan	Aberdeen, North.....	L
Pollard, Dr. G. H.....	Lancs., Eccles	L
Powell, Sir F. S., Bart.	Wigan	C
Power, P. J.	Waterford, East	N

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Price, C. E.	Edinburgh, Central	L
Price, R. J.	Norfolk, East	L
Priestley, Arthur	Grantham	L
Priestley, W. E. B.	Bradford, East	L
Radford, George H.	Islington, East	L
Rainy, Dr. A. R.	Kilmarnock Burghs	L
Randles, Sir J.	Cumberland, Cockermouth	C
Raphael, H. H.	Derbyshire, South	L
Rasch, Sir Carne	Essex, Chelmsford	C
Ratcliff, Major R. F.	Staffs., Burton	LU
Rawlinson, J. F. P.	Cambridge University	C
Rea, Russell	Gloucester	L
Rea, Walter R.	Scarboro'	L
Reckitt, H. J.	Lincolnshire, Brigg	L
Reddy, M.	King's County, Birr	N
Redmond, John E.	Waterford	N
Redmond, William H. K.	Clare, East	N
Rees, J. D.	Montgomery District	L
Remnant, J. F.	Finsbury, Holborn	C
Rendall, A.	Gloucester, Thornbury	L
Renton, Major Leslie	Lincolnshire, Gainsboro'	L
Richards, T. F.	Wolverhampton, West	LR
Richards, Tom	Monmouthshire, West	Lab.
Richardson, A.	Nottingham, South	L
Rickett, J. C.	Yorks., Osgoldcross	L
Ridsdale, E. A.	Brighton	L
Roberts, Chas. H.	Lincoln	L
Roberts, G. H.	Norwich	LR
Roberts, J. Bryn	Carnarvonshire, Eifion	L
Roberts, John Herbert	Denbighshire, West	L
Roberts, Samuel	Sheffield, Ecclesall	C
Robertson, Edmund	Dundee	L
Robertson, Sir George Scott	Bradford, Central	L
Robertson, J. M.	Northumberland, Tyneside	L
Robinson, Sydney	Brecknockshire	L
Robson, Sir W.	South Shields	L
Roche, Augustine	Cork, City	N
Roche, J.	Galway, East	N
Roe, Sir Thomas	Derby	L
Rogers, F. Newman	Wilts., Devizes	L
Ropner, Sir Robert	Stockton	C
Rose, C. D.	Cambs., Newmarket	L
Rothschild, Hon. L. W.	Bucks., Mid, Aylesbury	LU
Rowlands, James	Kent, Dartford	L
Runciman, Walter (jun.)	Dewsbury	L
Russell, T. W.	Tyrone, South	L
Rutherford, John	Lancs., Darwen	C
Rutherford, Dr. V. H.	Middlesex, Brentford	L
Rutherford, W. Watson	Liverpool, West Derby	C
Salter, —	Berks., Basingstoke	LU

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Samuel, H. L.	Yorks., Cleveland	L
Samuel, S. M.	Tower Hamlets, Whitechapel...	L
Sandys, Lieut.-Col. T. M.	Lancs., South-West, Bootle ...	C
Sassoon, Sir E.	Hythe	C
Scarisbrick, T. T. L.	Dorset, South	L
Schwann, C. D.	Cheshire, Hyde	L
Schwann, C. E.	Manchester, North	L
Scott, A. H.	Ashton-under-Lyne	L
Scott, Sir S.	Marylebone, West	C
Sears, J. E.	Cheltenham	L
Seaverns, J. H.	Lambeth, Brixton	L
Seddon, J. A.	Lancs., Newton	LR
Seely, J. E. Bernard	Liverpool, Abercromby	L
Shackleton, D. J.	Lancs., Clitheroe	LR
Shaw, Charles E.	Stafford	L
Shaw, Rt. Hon. Thos.	Hawick Burghs	L
Sheehan, D. D.	Cork Co., Mid	N
Sheehy, David	Meath, South	N
Sherwell, A. J.	Huddersfield	L
Shipman, Dr. J. G.	Northampton	L
Silcock, T. B.	Somerset, Wells	L
Simon, J. A.	Essex, Walthamstow	L
Sinclair, Rt. Hon. J.	Forfarshire	L
Sloan, T. H.	Belfast, South	C
Smeaton, D. Mc.Kenzie	Stirlingshire	L
Smith, A. H.	Herts., East	C
Smith, F. E.	Liverpool, Walton	C
Smith, Hon. W. F. D.	Strand	C
Smyth, Thos. J.	Leitrim, South	N
Snowden, Philip	Blackburn	LR
Soames, A. W.	Norfolk, South	L
Soares, E. J.	Devonshire, Barnstaple	L
Spicer, Albert	Hackney, Central	L
Stanger, H. Y.	Kensington, North	L
Stanley, Hon. Arthur	Lancs., South-West, Ormskirk.	C
Stanley, Hon. A. Lyulph	Cheshire, Eddisbury	L
Sarkey, John R.	Notts., Newark	C
Steadman, William C.	Finsbury, Central	Lab.
Stewart, Halley	Greenock	L
Stewart-Smith, D.	Westmorland, Kendal	L
Stone, Sir J. B.	Birmingham, East	C
Strachey, Sir Edward	Somerset, South	L
Straus, B. S.	Tower Hamlets, Mile End ...	L
Strauss, E. A.	Berkshire, North	L
Stuart, James	Sunderland	L
Stuart-Wortley, Rt. Hon. C. B. ...	Sheffield, Hallam	C
Sullivan, Donal	Westmeath, South	N
Summerbell, T. R.	Sunderland	LR
Sutherland, J. E.	Elgin Burghs	L
Talbot, Lord Edmund	Sussex, S.W., Chichester	C
Talbot, Rt. Hon. J. G.	Oxford University	C

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
Taylor, Austin	Liverpool, East Toxteth	L
Taylor, J. W.	Durham, Chester-le-Street	Lab.
Taylor, T. C.	Lancs., Radcliffe-cum-Farnw'th	L
Tennant, E. P.	Salisbury	L
Tennant, H. J.	Berwickshire	L
Thomas, F. Freeman	Bodmin	L
Thomas, Abel	Carmarthenshire, East	L
Thomas, Sir Alfred	Glamorgan, East	L
Thomas, D. A.	Merthyr Tydvil	L
Thomasson, F.	Leicester	L
Thompson, J. W. H.	Somerset, East	L
Thomson, W. Mitchell- (see Mitche	ll-Thomson).	
Thorne, W.	West Ham, South	LR
Thornton, P. M.	Clapham	C
Tillett, Louis J.	Norwich	L
Tomkinson, J.	Cheshire, Crewe	L
Torrance, A. M.	Glasgow, Central	L
Toulmin, G.	Bury	L
Trevelyan, C. P.	Yorks., W.R., Elland	L
Tuke, Sir J. Batty	Edinburgh & St. Andrew's Univ.	C
Turnour, Viscount	Sussex, Horsham	C
Ure, A.	Linlithgow, West Lothian	L
Valentia, Viscount	Oxford	C
Verney, F. W.	Bucks., Buckingham	L
Villiers, E. A.	Brighton	L
Vincent, Sir C. Howard	Sheffield, Central	C
Vivian, Henry	Birkenhead	L
Wadsworth, J.	Yorks., Hallamshire	Lab.
Waldron, L. A.	Dublin, St. Stephen's Green ...	N
Walker, H. de Rosenbach	Leicestershire, Melton	L
Walker, Col. W. Hall	Lancs., Widnes	C
Wallace, R.	Perth	L
Walrond, Hon. Lionel	Devon, Tiverton	C
Walsh, Stephen	Lancs., Ince	LR
Walters, W. Tudor	Sheffield, Brightside	L
Walton, Joseph	Yorks., W.R., Barnsley	L
Walton, Sir J. Lawson	Leeds, South	L
Ward, Hon. Dudley	Southampton	L
Ward, John	Stoke-on-Trent	Lab.
Warde, Col. C. E.	Kent, Mid, Medway	C
Wardle, G. J.	Stockport	LR
Warner, T. C. T.	Staffs., Lichfield	L
Wason, Eugene	Clackmannan and Kinross ...	L
Wason, J. Cathcart	Orkney and Shetland	L
Waterlow, D. S.	Islington, North	L
Watt, H. Anderson	Glasgow, College	L
Wedgwood, J. C.	Newcastle-under-Lyme	L
Weir, J. Galloway	Ross and Cromarty	L
Whitbread, S. Howard	Hunts., Huntingdon	L

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Member.	Constituency.	Party.
White, George	Norfolk, North-West	L
White, J. Dundas	Dumbartonshire	L
White, Luke	Yorks., Buckrose	L
White, Patrick	Meath, North	N
Whitehead, Rowland	Essex, South-East	L
Whiteley, G.	Yorks., W.R., Pudsey	L
Whitley, J. H.	Halifax	L
Whittaker, T. P.	Yorks., W.R., E., Spen Valley..	L
Wiles, Thomas	Islington, South	L
Wilkie, Alex.	Dundee	LR
Williams, A. Osmond	Merionethshire	L
Williams, J.	Glamorganshire, Gower	Lab.
Williams, Col. R.	Dorset, West	C
Williams, W. Llewelyn	Carmarthen District.....	L
Williamson, A.	Elgin and Nairn	L
Willoughby de Eresby, Lord.....	Lincolnshire, Horncastle	C
Wills, A. W.	Dorset, North	L
Wilson, A. S.	Yorks., E.R., Holderness	C
Wilson, Charles H. Wellesley	Hull, West	L
Wilson, Henry Joseph	Yorks., W.R., S., Holmfirth	L
Wilson, J. Havelock	Middlesbro'	Lab.
Wilson, John	Durham, Mid	Lab.
Wilson, John W.	Worcestershire, North, Oldbury	L
Wilson, P. W.	St. Pancras, South.....	L
Wilson, W. T.	Lancs., Westhoughton	LR
Winfrey, R.	Norfolk, South	L
Wodehouse, Lord	Norfolk, Mid	L
Wolff, Gustav W.	Belfast, East	C
Wood, T. Mackinnon	Glasgow, St. Rollox.....	L
Wyndham, George	Dover	C
Young, Samuel	Cavan, East.....	N
Younger, G.	Ayr Burghs	C
Yoxall, J. H.	Nottingham, West	L

STATE OF PARTIES.

Conservatives and Unionists.....	156
Liberals	380
Labour, Trade Union Party	22
Labour Representation Party	29
Nationalists	83
Total	670

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

	YEAR.
<i>Declaration of Independence</i>	4th July, 1776
General Washington, first President	1789 and 1793
John Adams	1797
Thomas Jefferson	1801 and 1805
James Madison	1809 and 1813
James Monroe	1817 and 1821
John Quincy Adams.....	1825
General Andrew Jackson	1829 and 1833
Martin Van Buren	1837
General William Henry Harrison (died 4th April)	1841
John Tyler (previously Vice-President)	1841
James Knox Polk	1845
General Zachary Taylor (died 9th July, 1850)	1849
Millard Fillmore (previously Vice-President).....	1850
General Franklin Pierce	1853
James Buchanan	1857
Abraham Lincoln (assassinated 14th April, 1865).....	1861 and 1865
Andrew Johnson (previously Vice-President)	1865
General Ulysses S. Grant	1869 and 1873
Rutherford Richard Hayes, after long contest with Tilden.....	1877
General Garfield (shot July 2; died September 19)	1881
Chester A. Arthur, Vice-President, succeeded September 20	1881
Grover Cleveland	1885
General Benjamin Harrison	1889
Grover Cleveland	1893
William M'Kinley.....	1896
William M'Kinley (shot September 6th, 1901; died September 14th)	1900
Theodore Roosevelt	1901
" " re-elected	1904

The United States of America form a Federal Republic, consisting of 45 States and 5 Territories.

WRECKS.

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS BELONGING TO THE UNITED KINGDOM TOTALLY LOST AT SEA, EXCLUSIVE
OF VESSELS OF THE ROYAL NAVY, IN THE YEARS 1890 TO 1904.

YEARS.	SAILING.		STEAM.		TOTAL.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1890	394	93,870	134	112,864	528	206,734
1891	448	104,991	139	112,431	587	217,422
1892	321	88,220	96	76,076	417	164,296
1893	391	82,888	132	96,086	523	178,924
1894	390	70,792	149	104,126	539	174,918
1895	352	90,572	126	94,851	478	185,423
1896	326	81,217	107	94,607	433	175,824
1897	347	63,877	128	105,053	475	168,930
1898	288	52,409	125	111,686	413	164,095
1899	265	50,447	132	133,128	397	183,575
1900	253	64,005	132	95,998	385	160,003
1901	244	60,346	103	72,773	347	133,119
1902	241	45,010	94	59,325	335	104,335
1903	304	47,972	115	89,621	419	137,593
1904	201	41,141	120	101,589	321	142,730

NOTE.—The losses of unregistered vessels are included in the above figures.

WRECKS.

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS AND CREW LOST BY WRECKS AND CASUALTIES AT SEA TO VESSELS BELONGING TO THE UNITED KINGDOM, EXCLUSIVE OF VESSELS OF THE ROYAL NAVY, IN THE YEARS 1890 TO 1904.

YEARS.	FROM SAILING VESSELS.			FROM STEAM VESSELS.			TOTAL.		
	Crew.	Passengers.	Total.	Crew.	Passengers.	Total.	Crew.	Passengers.	Total.
1890.....	884	25	909	488	147	635	1,372	172	1,544
1891.....	942	18	960	400	566	966	1,342	584	1,926
1892.....	812	40	852	406	72	478	1,218	112	1,330
1893.....	763	57	820	634	33	667	1,397	90	1,487
1894.....	946	71	1,017	535	1,183	1,718	1,481	1,254	2,735
1895.....	955	70	1,025	385	34	419	1,340	104	1,444
1896.....	474	12	486	359	398	757	833	410	1,243
1897.....	420	9	429	408	39	447	828	48	876
1898.....	442	20	462	430	80	510	872	100	972
1899.....	484	23	507	699	102	801	1,183	125	1,308
1900.....	564	12	576	549	38	587	1,113	50	1,163
1901.....	462	15	477	327	8	335	789	23	812
1902.....	225	13	238	460	674	1,134	685	687	1,372
1903.....	339	14	353	364	22	386	703	36	739
1904.....	287	18	305	305	9	314	592	27	619

NOTE.—The losses of unregistered vessels (if any) are included in the above figures.

THE TIME ALL OVER THE WORLD.

When the clock at Greenwich points to Noon the time at the various places is as follows:—

	H.	M.		H.	M.
Boston, U.S.....	7	18 a.m.	Copenhagen	12	50 p.m.
Dublin	11	35 a.m.	Florence	12	45 p.m.
Edinburgh	11	47 a.m.	Jerusalem	2	21 p.m.
Glasgow	11	43 a.m.	Madras	5	21 p.m.
Lisbon	11	43 a.m.	Malta	12	58 p.m.
Madrid	11	45 a.m.	Melbourne, Australia	9	40 p.m.
New York, U.S.	7	14 a.m.	Moscow	2	30 p.m.
Penzance	11	38 a.m.	Munich	12	46 p.m.
Philadelphia, U.S.	6	59 a.m.	Paris	12	9 p.m.
Quebec	7	15 a.m.	Pekin	7	46 p.m.
Adelaide, Australia	9	11 p.m.	Prague	12	58 p.m.
Amsterdam	12	19 p.m.	Rome	12	50 p.m.
Athens	1	35 p.m.	Rotterdam	12	18 p.m.
Berlin	12	54 p.m.	St. Petersburg	2	1 p.m.
Berne.....	12	30 p.m.	Suez	2	10 p.m.
Bombay	4	52 p.m.	Sydney, Australia	10	5 p.m.
Brussels	12	17 p.m.	Stockholm.....	1	12 p.m.
Calcutta	5	54 p.m.	Stuttgart.....	0	37 p.m.
Capetown	1	14 p.m.	Vienna	1	6 p.m.
Constantinople	1	56 p.m.			

Hence, by a little calculation, the time for those places at any hour of our day may be ascertained. At places east of London the apparent time is later, and west of London, earlier; for uniformity sake, however, Greenwich time is kept at all railways in Great Britain and Ireland.

TOTAL GROSS AMOUNT OF INCOME BROUGHT UNDER THE REVIEW OF THE INLAND REVENUE DEPARTMENT.

Year.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	Year.
	£	£	£	£	
1891-2	585,974,437	60,866,631	31,352,374	678,193,442	1891-2
1892-3	585,650,046	62,076,761	31,763,710	679,490,517	1892-3
1893-4	580,041,683	61,632,540	32,037,765	673,711,988	1893-4
1894-5	564,098,584	61,328,840	31,669,653	657,097,077	1894-5
1895-6	583,966,579	62,143,688	31,659,583	677,769,850	1895-6
1896-7	607,112,810	65,350,653	32,278,145	704,741,608	1896-7
1897-8	633,293,018	68,548,264	32,619,964	734,461,246	1897-8
1898-9	657,212,406	72,209,602	33,245,301	762,667,309	1898-9
1899-1900	682,020,599	76,213,242	33,501,572	791,735,413	1899-1900
1900-1	719,354,160	79,962,343	31,039,010	833,355,513	1900-1
1901-2	749,127,300	83,515,877	34,350,276	866,993,453	1901-2
1902-3	760,844,311	84,218,290	34,575,945	879,638,546	1902-3
1903-4	781,661,273	86,004,343	35,092,969	902,758,585	1903-4
1904-5	789,681,212	87,010,655	35,437,813	912,129,680	1904-5

BAROMETER INSTRUCTIONS.

COMPILED BY THE LATE ADMIRAL FITZROY, F.R.S.

The barometer should be set regularly by a duly-authorised person, about sunrise, noon, and sunset.

The words on scales of barometers should not be so much regarded for weather indications as the RISING or FALLING of the mercury; for if it stand at CHANGEABLE (29.50) and then rise towards FAIR (30.00) it presages a change of wind or weather, though not so great as if the mercury had risen higher; and, on the contrary, if the mercury stand above FAIR and then fall it presages a change, though not to so great a degree as if it had stood lower; beside which, the direction and force of wind are not in any way noticed.

It is not from the point at which the mercury may stand that we are alone to form a judgment of the state of the weather, but from its RISING or FALLING, and from the movements of immediately PRECEDING days as well as hours, keeping in mind effects of change of DIRECTION, and dryness or moisture, as well as alteration of force or strength of wind.

It should always be remembered that the state of the air FORETELLS COMING weather rather than shows the weather that is PRESENT—an invaluable fact too often overlooked—that the longer the time between the signs and the change foretold by them the longer such altered weather will last; and, on the contrary, the less the time between a warning and a change the shorter will be the continuance of such foretold weather.

If the barometer has been about its ordinary height, say near 30 inches at the sea-level, and is steady on rising, while the thermometer falls and dampness becomes less, north-westerly, northerly, north-easterly wind, or less wind, less rain or snow may be expected.

On the contrary, if a fall takes place with a rising thermometer and increased dampness, wind and rain may be expected from the south-eastward, southward, or south-westward. A fall with low thermometer foretells snow.

When the barometer is rather below its ordinary height, say down to near 29½ inches (at sea-level), a rise foretells less wind, or a change in its direction towards the northward, or less wet; but when it has been very low, about 29 inches, the first rising usually precedes or indicates strong wind—at times heavy squalls—from the north-westward, northward, or north-eastward, AFTER which violence a gradually rising glass foretells improving weather; if the thermometer falls, but if the warmth continues, probably the wind will back (shift against the sun's course), and more southerly or south-westerly wind will follow, especially if the barometer rise is sudden.

The most dangerous shifts of wind, or the HEAVIEST northerly gales, happen soon after the barometer first rises from a very low point; or if the wind veers GRADUALLY, at some time afterwards.

BAROMETER INSTRUCTIONS.

Indications of approaching change of weather and the direction and force of winds are shown less by the height of the barometer than by its falling or rising. Nevertheless, a height of more than 30 (30.00) inches (at the level of the sea) is indicative of fine weather and MODERATE winds, except from east to north, OCCASIONALLY.

A rapid rise of the barometer indicates unsettled weather, a slow movement the contrary; as likewise a STEADY barometer, when continued and with dryness, foretells very fine weather.

A rapid and considerable fall is a sign of stormy weather, and rain or snow. Alternate rising and sinking indicates unsettled or threatening weather.

The greatest depressions of the barometer are with gales from S.E., S., or S.W.; the greatest deviations, with wind from N.W., N., or N.E., or with calm.

A sudden fall of the barometer, with a westerly wind, is sometimes followed by a violent storm from N.W., N., or N.E.

If a gale sets in from the E. or S.E., and the wind veers by the south, the barometer will continue falling until the wind is near a marked change, when a lull MAY occur; after which the gale will soon be renewed, perhaps suddenly and violently, and the veering of the wind towards the N.W., N., or N.E. will be indicated by a rising of the barometer, with a fall of the thermometer.

After very warm and calm weather a storm or squall, with rain, may follow; likewise at any time when the atmosphere is HEATED much above the USUAL temperature of the season.

To know the state of the air not only the barometer AND THERMOMETER, but appearances of the sky should be vigilantly watched.

 SIGNS OF WEATHER.

Whether clear or cloudy, a rosy sky at sunset presages fine weather; a red sky in the morning, bad weather or much wind, perhaps rain; a grey sky in the morning, fine weather; a high dawn, wind; a low dawn, fair weather.*

Soft-looking or delicate clouds foretell fine weather, with moderate or light breezes; hard-edged, oily-looking clouds, wind. A dark, gloomy, blue sky is windy, but a light, bright blue sky indicates fine weather. Generally, the softer the clouds look, the less wind (but perhaps more rain) may be expected; and the harder, more "greasy," rolled, tufted, or ragged, the stronger the coming wind will prove. Also a bright yellow sky at sunset presages wind; a pale yellow, wet; and thus, by the prevalence of red, yellow, or grey tints, the coming weather may be foretold very nearly—indeed, if aided by instruments, almost exactly.

* A high dawn is when the first indications of daylight are seen above a bank of clouds. A low dawn is when the day breaks on or near the horizon, the first streaks of light being very low down.

BAROMETER INSTRUCTIONS.

Small inky-looking clouds foretell rain; light scud clouds driving across heavy masses show wind and rain, but if alone may indicate wind only.

High upper clouds crossing the sun, moon, or stars in a direction different from that of the lower clouds, or the wind then felt below, foretell a change of wind.

After fine, clear weather the first signs in the sky of a coming change are usually light streaks, curls, wisps, or mottled patches of white distant clouds, which increase, and are followed by an overcasting of murky vapour that grows into cloudiness. This appearance, more or less oily or watery as wind or rain will prevail, is an infallible sign.

Light, delicate, quiet tints or colours, with soft, undefined forms of clouds, indicate and accompany fine weather; but gaudy or unusual hues, with hard, definitely-outlined clouds, foretell rain, and probably strong wind.

When sea-birds fly out early and far to seaward, moderate wind and fair weather may be expected. When they hang about the land, or over it, sometimes flying inland, expect a strong wind, with stormy weather. As many creatures besides birds are affected by the approach of rain or wind, such indications should not be slighted by an observer who wishes to foresee weather.

Remarkable clearness of atmosphere near the horizon, distant objects such as hills unusually visible, or raised (by refraction),† and what is called a “good HEARING day,” may be mentioned among signs of wet, if not wind, to be expected.

More than usual twinkling of the stars, indistinctness or apparent multiplication of the moon’s horns, haloes, “wind-dogs” (fragments or pieces of rainbows, sometimes called “wind-galls”) seen on detached clouds, and the rainbow, are more or less significant of increasing wind, if not approaching rain with or without wind.

Lastly, the dryness or dampness of the air, and its temperature (for the season), should ALWAYS be considered WITH OTHER indications of change or continuance of wind and weather.

On barometer scales the following contractions may be useful:—

RISE
FOR
N.E.LY
(N.W.-N.-E.)
DRY
OR
LESS
WIND.
—
EXCEPT
WET FROM
N.E.D.

FALL
FOR
S.W.LY
(S.E.-S.-W.)
WET
OR
MORE
WIND.
—
EXCEPT
WET FROM
N.E.D.

When the wind shifts against the sun,
Trust it not, for back it will run.

FIRST rise after very low
Indicates a stronger blow.

Long foretold—long last;
Short notice—soon past.

† Much refraction is a sign of easterly wind.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDED SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, GREENWICH, KENT.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL, 159 FEET.

YEAR 1905-6.	BARO-METER.	AIR TEMPERATURE.						ABSOLUTE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM.			BRIGHT SUNSHINE.		CLOUD.	RAIN AND OTHER FORMS OF PRECIPITATION.		
		MEAN OF			Differ- ence from Average. *	Mini- mum.		Day of Month.	Maxi- mum.	Day of Month.	Total Poss.	Differ- ence from Average. *		Mean of Observa- tions of amount at 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. (Scale 0-10).	Num- ber of Days.	Total Fall.
		A	B	Maxi- mum.												
Month.	Mean Pressure, at 32° F. at Station Level.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.			
1905.	Ins.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.			
October	29.848	38.2	52.4	45.3	-4.7	26.1	17	59.6	9	330	90.1	5.5	15	0.91		
November ..	29.529	35.3	47.2	41.2	-2.0	23.1	22	54.9	26	266	54.6	6.5	18	3.12		
December ..	30.072	35.7	44.6	40.1	+0.4	25.4	11	57.3	7	214	23.3	8.1	8	0.60		
1906.																
January	29.793	37.4	46.9	42.2	+3.7	25.8	23	53.2	13	259	54.9	6.3	18	3.71		
February ..	30.1	33.5	41.3	38.9	-0.6	26.1	22	50.7	16	277	62.8	6.4	18	1.80		
March	29.833	35.6	48.8	42.2	+0.5	27.4	3	65.0	7	365	101.4	6.3	18	1.00		
April	29.904	35.2	57.3	46.2	-1.0	28.1	20	73.2	12	413	218.5	4.2	9	0.67		
May	30.0	44.4	62.4	53.4	+0.3	31.6	18	76.2	8	481	153.0	7.3	12	1.57		
June	29.951	47.9	69.8	58.8	-0.6	37.6	5	82.0	20	495	211.2	5.3	7	2.80		
July	29.865	53.3	75.4	64.4	+2.0	45.1	1	86.2	18	498	262.6	4.8	7	0.41		
August	29.831	54.4	77.0	65.7	+4.1	44.1	29	94.3	31	451	248.7	5.2	8	1.39		
September ..	30.026	49.3	69.8	59.5	+2.3	37.1	27	93.5	2	379	185.7	5.0	11	1.97		

* The averages used are obtained from observations extending over 30 years, namely, Temperature, 30 years, 1871-1900; Sunshine, 30 years, 1881-1900.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDED SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, BIRMINGHAM, WARWICK.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL, 542 FEET.

YEAR 1905-6.	Month.	BARO-METER.	AIR TEMPERATURE.					BRIGHT SUNSHINE.				CLOUD.	RAIN AND OTHER FORMS OF PRECIPITATION.			
			MEAN OF		Mean of A and B.	Differ- ence from Average. *	ABSOLUTE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM.				Total Poss.		Differ- ence from Average. *	Mean of Observa- tions of amount at 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. (Scale 0.10).	Num- ber of Days	Total Fall.
			A	B			Mini- mum.	Day of Month.	Maxi- mum.	Day of Month.						
1905.		Ins.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	6.1	14	1.40	
October		29.434	39.2	50.3	44.8	-3.3	28.8	22	56.2	1	323	73.1	..	15	2.99	
November ..		.087	36.6	44.8	40.7	-2.1	27.0	20	51.0	26	256	37.9	..	12	0.83	
December ..		29.599	36.0	44.1	40.1	+1.4	28.2	4	54.4	7	233	42.0	..			
1906.																
January		29.308	36.3	44.9	40.6	+2.8	28.0	1	51.9	27	249	41.5	..	18	3.86	
February ..		.156	32.7	41.5	37.1	-1.8	27.7	5	48.7	26	272	63.9	..	18	2.04	
March		29.400	35.0	46.7	40.9	-0.3	26.2	13	62.8	7	365	75.9	..	12	1.14	
April		29.491	36.4	54.0	45.2	-0.5	28.6	27	68.0	12	413	163.5	..	13	1.38	
May262	44.3	57.1	50.7	0.0	35.3	2	71.2	8	484	93.2	..	17	2.73	
June		29.519	49.6	65.6	57.6	+0.2	41.8	5	76.7	23	495	161.8	..	10	2.87	
July		29.451	52.5	68.8	60.7	+0.3	42.7	1	77.7	30	496	180.5	..	9	0.90	
August396	54.6	72.2	63.4	+3.8	46.6	19	89.2	31	448	197.0	..	12	0.90	
September ..		29.627	49.7	66.1	57.9	+2.4	40.2	26	90.6	1	374	155.7	..	7	1.18	

* The averages used are obtained from observations extending over 30 years, namely, Temperature, 30 years, 1871-1900; Sunshine, 20 years, 1881-1900.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDED SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, SOUTHAMPTON, HANTS.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL, 84 FEET.

YEAR 1905-6.	Baro- METER.	AIR TEMPERATURE.					BRIGHT SUNSHINE.				CLOUD.	RAIN AND OTHER FORMS OF PRECIPITATION.			
		MEAN OF			Differ- ence from Average. *	ABSOLUTE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM.			Total Poss.	Differ- ence from Average. *		Mean of Observa- tions of amount at 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. (Scale 0-10).	Num- ber of Days.	Total Fall.	
		A	B	Maxi- mum.		Mini- mum.	Day of Month.	Maxi- mum.							Day of Month.
Month.	Mean Pressure, at 32° F. at Station Level.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.	Ins.		
1905.															
October . . .	29.977	40.0	55.5	47.8	-3.0	17	61.0	9	325	126.8	6.2	11	2.28		
November ..	29.615	36.3	48.5	42.4	-2.7	21	55.4	3	262	73.9	7.1	19	4.35		
December ..	30.166	37.8	46.6	42.2	+1.6	12	56.6	7	241	39.5	7.9	12	0.80		
1906.															
January . . .	29.913	39.2	49.3	44.3	+4.5	21	53.0	5	257	82.0	7.9	22	8.16		
February ..	29.727	34.1	46.0	40.1	-1.1	6	51.4	1	276	97.0	6.0	23	3.46		
March	29.937	36.4	49.6	43.0	-0.6	23	62.6	6	365	125.9	7.1	19	1.41		
April	30.004	37.7	57.3	47.5	-0.9	27	68.3	13	411	237.8	4.3	10	0.89		
May	29.798	46.1	61.0	53.6	-0.1	2	77.1	8	477	159.6	7.9	17	2.11		
June	30.059	49.8	69.3	59.6	-0.1	6	78.3	22	487	270.3	5.3	7	1.79		
July	29.972	53.7	73.2	63.5	+0.4	1	81.0	18	489	258.6	6.3	7	0.68		
August	29.940	56.2	73.6	64.9	+2.5	29	84.4	31	444	226.9	5.8	9	1.53		
September ..	30.131	51.2	69.6	60.4	+2.1	26	82.9	1	373	207.4	4.6	4	0.91		

* The averages used are obtained from observations extending over 30 years, namely, Temperature, 30 years, 1871-1900; Sunshine, 30 years, 1881-1900.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDED SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, NORWICH (EATON), NORFOLK.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL, 93 FEET.

YEAR 1905-6.	BARO- METER.	AIR TEMPERATURE.										BRIGHT SUNSHINE.			CLOUD.	RAIN AND OTHER FORMS OF PRECIPITATION.	
		Mean Pressure, at 32° F. at Station Level.	MEAN OF			Mean of A and B.	Differ- ence from Average. *	ABSOLUTE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM.				Total Poss.	Differ- ence from Average. *	Mean of Observa- tions of amount at 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. (Scale 0-10).		Num. ber of Days.	Total Fall.
			A	B	Maxi- mum.			Mini- mum.	Day of Month.	Maxi- mum.	Day of Month.						
Month.																	
1905.	Ins.		Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.		
October	38.6	51.0	44.8	28.8	26	58.4	9	323	28	3.72	
November	35.7	46.2	41.0	23.6	21	54.2	26	255	25	2.20	
December	34.8	43.2	39.0	28.4	11	55.4	7	232	17	1.05	
1906.	Ins.		Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.		
January	36.2	45.2	40.7	26.8	23	52.0	27	248	22	3.96	
February	32.8	43.5	38.2	27.4	13	49.0	19	271	22	2.67	
March	35.0	47.8	41.4	27.0	13	67.0	7	365	20	1.99	
April	36.0	55.2	45.6	28.8	26	72.2	12	414	11	0.66	
May	44.7	61.4	53.1	31.8	1	73.6	28	485	15	2.67	
June	48.3	65.4	55.9	36.0	6	78.4	24	497	13	2.31	
July	52.7	72.6	62.7	44.2	3	82.5	23	497	10	0.78	
August	53.9	73.9	63.9	43.2	28	91.5	31	449	9	1.87	
September	..	48.6	68.6	58.6	34.4	27	93.0	3	374	12	1.14	

* The averages used are obtained from observations extending over 30 years, namely, Temperature, 30 years, 1871-1900; Sunshine, 20 years, 1881-1900.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDED SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, YORK, YORKSHIRE.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL, 53 FEET.

YEAR 1905-6.	BARO-METER.	AIR TEMPERATURE.						BRIGHT SUNSHINE.		CLOUD.	RAIN AND OTHER FORMS OF PRECIPITATION.			
		MEAN OF			Differ-ence from Average.	ABSOLUTE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM.			Total Poss.		Differ-ence from Average.	Mean of Observa-tions of amount at 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. (Scale 0·10).	Num-ber of Days.	Total Fall.
		A	B	Maxi-mum.		Mean of A. and B.	Mini-mum.	Day of Month.						
Month.	Mean Pressure, at 32° F. at Station Level.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.		
1905.	Ins.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.		
October	29·926	38·4	52·0	45·2	45·2	-2·7	28·8	17	64·8	9	322	105·8	15	1·28
November ..	29·611	36·3	45·6	41·0	41·0	-1·6	22·0	19	53·0	12	251	38·3	21	3·32
December ..	30·113	36·4	45·5	41·0	41·0	+3·1	30·0	13	54·0	7	225	27·1	6	0·25
1906.														
January	29·784	37·1	45·4	41·3	41·3	+3·6	30·0	20	53·4	28	243	30·4	21	2·82
February ..	29·641	31·7	42·7	37·2	37·2	-1·8	26·0	24	47·0	1, 26	268	69·6	19	1·67
March	29·809	34·6	47·5	41·1	41·1	-0·3	20·0	14	58·3	17	363	114·3	18	1·36
April	30·023	34·3	54·6	44·5	44·5	-1·4	29·5	7, 9	67·0	13	417	181·2	12	1·02
May	29·777	43·9	58·5	51·2	51·2	+0·2	30·5	2	68·0	7, 24	490	98·5	18	1·72
June	30·065	49·3	67·6	58·5	58·5	+1·0	39·0	5	78·0	12	503	186·1	14	1·37
July	29·944	52·7	70·5	61·6	61·6	+0·9	43·8	12	78·1	23	505	211·8	12	0·92
August	29·878	53·4	70·9	62·2	62·2	+2·5	49·8	6	84·0	31	453	181·9	17	2·22
September ..	30·148	46·3	65·9	56·1	56·1	+0·6	32·0	28	92·0	1	375	156·5	7	0·48

* The averages used are obtained from observations extending over 30 years, namely, Temperature, 30 years, 1871-1900; Sunshine, 30 years, 1881-1900.

MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR THE YEAR ENDED SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

(From Official Sources.)

THE OBSERVATORY, MANCHESTER, LANCASHIRE.—HEIGHT OF STATION ABOVE SEA LEVEL, 195 FEET.

YEAR 1905-6.	BARO-METER.	AIR TEMPERATURE.						BRIGHT SUNSHINE.			CLOUD.	RAIN AND OTHER FORMS OF PRECIPITATION.			
		MEAN OF		Mean of A and B.	Differ- ence from Average. *	ABSOLUTE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM.			Total Poss.	Total Observed.		Differ- ence from Average. *	Mean of Observa- tions of amount at 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. (Scale 0·10).	Num- ber of Days.	Total Fall.
		A Mini- mum.	B Maxi- mum.			Mini- mum.	Day of Month.	Maxi- mum.							
Month.	Mean Pressure, at 32° F. at Station Level.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.			
1905.	Ins.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Hrs.	Ins.			
October	29·808	40·5	50·5	45·5	31·8	22, 23	58·0	9	322	49·5	14	2·99	
November ..	·461	38·8	45·9	42·4	28·0	18	52·9	11	252	16·0	19	3·18	
December ..	29·971	39·5	45·9	42·7	30·9	31	52·4	7	228	11·2	11	0·47	
1906.															
January	29·663	38·5	45·3	41·9	31·0	20	52·1	28	245	8·9	23	4·57	
February ..	·527	33·7	42·2	38·0	27·8	18	46·2	1	269	45·3	20	3·29	
March	29·787	36·6	47·1	41·9	28·0	13	56·6	17	364	9·1	15	3·01	
April	29·883	38·4	54·5	46·5	31·6	19	69·1	11	416	165·7	12	2·01	
May	·638	46·6	57·0	51·8	37·1	1	69·8	13	488	74·4	21	3·89	
June	29·926	52·0	68·0	60·0	45·2	1	78·0	12, 13	501	155·4	15	1·42	
July	29·814	54·1	63·1	61·1	48·0	11	78·1	30	502	161·9	16	1·60	
August	29·746	56·6	69·5	63·1	50·9	19	86·4	31	452	149·5	17	3·06	
September ..	30·009	51·2	65·4	58·3	42·0	29	91·5	1	375	134·2	8	1·56	

* The averages used are obtained from observations extending over 30 years, namely, Temperature, 30 years, 1871-1900; Sunshine, 20 years, 1881-1900.

RAINFALL AT THE CENTRES NAMED FROM 1894 TO 1905.

YEAR.	TRURO.		GREENWICH.		CAMBRIDGE.		LIVERPOOL.		HALIFAX.		CARLISLE.		MANCHESTER.	
	Days it fell.	Inches.	Days it fell.	Inches.	Days it fell.	Inches.	Days it fell.	Inches.	Days it fell.	Inches.	Days it fell.	Inches.	Days it fell.	Inches.
1894.....	204	44.16	192	26.88	189	22.69	210	27.91	205	37.40	199	38.88	208	36.29
1895.....	182	40.56	158	19.73	161	22.41	183	26.22	191	37.81	191	32.34	186	33.88
1896.....	182	31.26	161	22.42	178	21.33	196	27.47	195	31.36	197	28.00	204	33.78
1897.....	204		169	22.13	176	21.23	190	28.47	203	34.04	188	33.44	199	35.66
1898.....	177	33.29	142	18.85	161	17.77	183	25.81	196	29.01	197	29.82
1899.....	163	34.87	141	22.34	146	18.82	188	27.85	173	34.71	187	31.18	187	30.84
1900.....	212	46.16	165	23.22	167	19.71	207	32.00	215	39.00	219	39.56	203	36.82
1901.....	199	35.40	123	20.28	126	16.42	190	24.71	192	30.90	187	29.20	172	29.54
1902.....	188	36.10	159	19.34	139	15.76	200	25.77	186	27.72	216	25.52	192	26.51
1903.....	230	52.11	179	35.54	169	30.54	224	34.43	..	57.65	236	47.24	194	37.81
1904.....	203	44.59	153	20.66	165	17.57	220	30.94	..	41.82	218	28.16	207	25.10
1905.....	188	34.68	178	23.02	180	18.99	187	25.24	187	25.94	182	24.98	225	30.98

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT LIVERPOOL FOR THE YEAR 1907.

JANUARY.				FEBRUARY.				MARCH.				APRIL.				MAY.				JUNE.			
Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	Day.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	
		Morn.	Aftern.			Morn.	Aftern.			Morn.	Aftern.			Morn.	Aftern.			Morn.	Aftern.			Morn.	Aftern.
1	Th	h m	h m	1	M	h m	h m	1	Th	h m	h m	1	Th	h m	h m	1	Th	h m	h m	1	Th	h m	h m
2	Fr	0 4	0 22	2	F	0 20	1 18	2	Fr	0 27	1 06	2	Fr	0 26	1 46	2	Fr	0 25	1 30	2	Fr	0 25	1 30
3	Sa	0 40	0 58	3	Sa	0 37	1 53	3	Sa	0 37	1 53	3	Sa	0 37	1 53	3	Sa	0 37	1 53	3	Sa	0 37	1 53
4	Su	1 16	1 34	4	Su	1 13	2 28	4	Su	1 13	2 28	4	Su	1 13	2 28	4	Su	1 13	2 28	4	Su	1 13	2 28
5	Mo	1 52	2 10	5	Mo	1 50	2 48	5	Mo	1 50	2 48	5	Mo	1 50	2 48	5	Mo	1 50	2 48	5	Mo	1 50	2 48
6	Tu	2 29	2 49	6	Tu	2 27	3 50	6	Tu	2 27	3 50	6	Tu	2 27	3 50	6	Tu	2 27	3 50	6	Tu	2 27	3 50
7	We	3 10	3 32	7	We	3 6	4 19	7	We	3 6	4 19	7	We	3 6	4 19	7	We	3 6	4 19	7	We	3 6	4 19
8	Th	3 56	4 24	8	Th	3 52	4 22	8	Th	3 52	4 22	8	Th	3 52	4 22	8	Th	3 52	4 22	8	Th	3 52	4 22
9	Fr	4 54	5 29	9	Fr	4 50	5 21	9	Fr	4 50	5 21	9	Fr	4 50	5 21	9	Fr	4 50	5 21	9	Fr	4 50	5 21
10	Sa	5 6	6 45	10	Sa	5 6	6 45	10	Sa	5 6	6 45	10	Sa	5 6	6 45	10	Sa	5 6	6 45	10	Sa	5 6	6 45
11	Su	7 22	7 56	11	Su	7 18	8 45	11	Su	7 18	8 45	11	Su	7 18	8 45	11	Su	7 18	8 45	11	Su	7 18	8 45
12	Mo	8 29	9 0	12	Mo	8 25	9 49	12	Mo	8 25	9 49	12	Mo	8 25	9 49	12	Mo	8 25	9 49	12	Mo	8 25	9 49
13	Tu	9 29	9 56	13	Tu	9 14	10 43	13	Tu	9 14	10 43	13	Tu	9 14	10 43	13	Tu	9 14	10 43	13	Tu	9 14	10 43
14	We	10 23	10 49	14	We	10 9	11 54	14	We	10 9	11 54	14	We	10 9	11 54	14	We	10 9	11 54	14	We	10 9	11 54
15	Th	11 15	11 41	15	Th	11 15	11 56	15	Th	11 15	11 56	15	Th	11 15	11 56	15	Th	11 15	11 56	15	Th	11 15	11 56
16	Fr	0 7	0 56	16	Fr	0 7	0 56	16	Fr	0 7	0 56	16	Fr	0 7	0 56	16	Fr	0 7	0 56	16	Fr	0 7	0 56
17	Sa	0 32	1 19	17	Sa	0 35	1 28	17	Sa	0 35	1 28	17	Sa	0 35	1 28	17	Sa	0 35	1 28	17	Sa	0 35	1 28
18	Su	1 19	1 41	18	Su	1 14	2 34	18	Su	1 14	2 34	18	Su	1 14	2 34	18	Su	1 14	2 34	18	Su	1 14	2 34
19	Mo	2 45	3 6	19	Mo	2 16	3 47	19	Mo	2 16	3 47	19	Mo	2 16	3 47	19	Mo	2 16	3 47	19	Mo	2 16	3 47
20	Tu	3 27	3 48	20	Tu	2 49	4 33	20	Tu	2 49	4 33	20	Tu	2 49	4 33	20	Tu	2 49	4 33	20	Tu	2 49	4 33
21	We	4 11	4 37	21	We	3 26	5 40	21	We	3 26	5 40	21	We	3 26	5 40	21	We	3 26	5 40	21	We	3 26	5 40
22	Th	5 5	5 36	22	Th	4 15	6 47	22	Th	4 15	6 47	22	Th	4 15	6 47	22	Th	4 15	6 47	22	Th	4 15	6 47
23	Fr	6 12	6 51	23	Fr	5 25	7 40	23	Fr	5 25	7 40	23	Fr	5 25	7 40	23	Fr	5 25	7 40	23	Fr	5 25	7 40
24	Sa	7 29	8 3	24	Sa	6 55	8 19	24	Sa	6 55	8 19	24	Sa	6 55	8 19	24	Sa	6 55	8 19	24	Sa	6 55	8 19
25	Su	8 35	9 4	25	Su	8 19	9 19	25	Su	8 19	9 19	25	Su	8 19	9 19	25	Su	8 19	9 19	25	Su	8 19	9 19
26	Mo	9 29	9 55	26	Mo	9 19	10 33	26	Mo	9 19	10 33	26	Mo	9 19	10 33	26	Mo	9 19	10 33	26	Mo	9 19	10 33
27	Tu	10 16	10 36	27	Tu	10 2	11 27	27	Tu	10 2	11 27	27	Tu	10 2	11 27	27	Tu	10 2	11 27	27	Tu	10 2	11 27
28	We	10 54	11 12	28	We	10 39	11 57	28	We	10 39	11 57	28	We	10 39	11 57	28	We	10 39	11 57	28	We	10 39	11 57
29	Th	11 30	11 48	29	Th	11 15	12 33	29	Th	11 15	12 33	29	Th	11 15	12 33	29	Th	11 15	12 33	29	Th	11 15	12 33
30	Fr	0 6	0 6	30	Fr	0 11	0 11	30	Fr	0 11	0 11	30	Fr	0 11	0 11	30	Fr	0 11	0 11	30	Fr	0 11	0 11
31	Sa	0 24	0 42	31	Sa	0 10	0 28	31	Sa	0 10	0 28	31	Sa	0 10	0 28	31	Sa	0 10	0 28	31	Sa	0 10	0 28

Garston tides 7 minutes later than Liverpool each day.

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT LIVERPOOL FOR THE YEAR 1907—continued.

JULY.			AUGUST.			SEPTEMBER.			OCTOBER.			NOVEMBER.			DECEMBER.		
Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.		Date.	LIVERPOOL High Water.	
	Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.
1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m
2	3 15	3 40	2	4 19	4 46	2	5 27	6 9	2	6 3	6 50	2	7 57	8 25	2	7 59	8 26
3	4 6	4 34	3	5 15	5 47	3	6 53	7 35	3	7 33	8 10	3	8 50	9 12	3	8 50	9 12
4	5 5	5 38	4	6 25	7 3	4	8 11	8 43	4	8 41	9 8	4	9 32	9 51	4	9 32	9 52
5	6 12	6 47	5	7 40	8 14	5	9 12	9 36	5	9 30	9 49	5	10 8	10 25	5	10 12	10 33
6	7 20	7 51	6	8 45	9 12	6	9 58	10 18	6	10 7	10 24	6	10 43	11 2	6	10 55	11 18
7	8 20	8 47	7	9 37	10 0	7	10 36	10 54	7	10 41	10 58	7	11 21	11 41	7	11 41	...
8	9 13	9 36	8	10 21	10 40	8	11 43	11 27	8	11 15	11 32	8	12 1	0 1	8	0 5	0 29
9	9 57	10 18	9	10 59	11 17	9	12 43	0 18	9	11 49	11 32	9	1 3	0 42	9	0 53	1 17
10	10 38	10 58	10	11 35	11 52	10	0 0	0 18	10	12 7	0 25	10	1 33	1 25	10	1 42	2 8
11	11 17	11 36	11	0 27	0 45	11	0 35	0 53	11	0 7	0 25	11	2 34	2 10	11	2 34	3 1
12	0 29	0 47	12	1 2	1 19	12	1 46	1 29	12	1 21	1 40	12	3 32	3 1	12	3 32	3 59
13	0 47	1 5	13	1 36	1 53	13	2 21	2 41	13	2 0	2 21	13	4 46	4 7	13	4 46	5 6
14	1 23	1 41	14	2 10	2 28	14	3 2	3 25	14	2 43	3 7	14	6 16	6 59	14	6 16	6 59
15	1 59	2 18	15	2 47	3 7	15	3 51	4 23	15	3 35	4 11	15	8 38	9 2	15	8 38	9 22
16	2 37	2 56	16	3 29	3 52	16	5 1	5 44	16	4 32	5 41	16	9 25	9 46	16	9 25	9 46
17	3 15	3 36	17	4 18	4 48	17	6 33	7 21	17	5 27	6 31	17	10 6	10 26	17	10 6	10 26
18	4 0	4 27	18	5 24	6 5	18	8 3	8 40	18	6 9	7 0	18	10 45	11 4	18	10 45	11 4
19	4 55	5 28	19	6 47	7 29	19	9 12	9 39	19	7 27	8 31	19	11 23	11 42	19	11 23	11 42
20	5 6	6 40	20	8 9	8 45	20	10 49	10 27	20	8 31	9 47	20	12 3	0 0	20	12 3	0 19
21	7 16	7 50	21	9 18	9 47	21	11 31	11 52	21	9 47	10 8	21	1 13	0 0	21	1 13	0 55
22	8 23	8 55	22	10 14	10 39	22	12 4	11 31	22	10 29	10 49	22	2 3	0 17	22	2 3	1 29
23	9 55	10 14	23	11 4	11 28	23	0 32	0 13	23	11 46	11 27	23	3 53	1 10	23	3 53	1 46
24	10 20	10 47	24	11 52	11 38	24	1 26	0 51	24	12 22	12 2	24	5 2	1 43	24	5 2	2 40
25	11 14	11 41	25	0 15	0 38	25	2 1	0 51	25	1 15	1 32	25	6 3	2 1	25	6 3	3 21
26	0 7	0 58	26	1 0	1 21	26	1 43	1 26	26	1 48	2 5	26	7 3	3 1	26	7 3	4 10
27	1 23	1 46	27	1 41	2 0	27	2 19	2 37	27	2 23	2 42	27	8 3	4 19	27	8 3	4 59
28	2 8	2 39	28	2 19	2 37	28	3 15	3 15	28	3 3	3 27	28	9 25	5 37	28	9 25	5 37
29	2 51	3 12	29	3 34	3 14	29	3 38	4 6	29	3 58	4 32	29	10 4	6 19	29	10 4	6 21
30	3 29	3 55	30	4 1	3 56	30	4 38	5 18	30	5 12	5 58	30	11 23	7 30	30	11 23	7 30
31	3 53	4 22	31	4 22	4 52	31	5 1	5 18	31	6 43	7 24	31	12 3	8 0	31	12 3	8 30

Garston tides 7 minutes later than Liverpool each day.

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT GOOLE FOR THE YEAR 1907.

JANUARY.				FEBRUARY.				MARCH.				APRIL.				MAY.				JUNE.			
GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.		GOOLE High Water.	
Date.	Day.	Morn.	Aftern.	Date.	Day.	Morn.	Aftern.	Date.	Day.	Morn.	Aftern.	Date.	Day.	Morn.	Aftern.	Date.	Day.	Morn.	Aftern.	Date.	Day.	Morn.	Aftern.
1	Th	h m	h m	1	F	h m	h m	1	M	h m	h m	1	W	h m	h m	1	W	h m	h m	1	S	h m	h m
2	W	8 12	8 30	2	S	9 06	8 22	2	S	8 10	8 27	2	Th	8 53	9 10	2	Th	9 11	9 32	2	Th	10 36	11 4
3	W	8 47	9 3	3	S	9 38	9 54	3	S	8 44	9 1	3	Th	9 28	9 47	3	Th	9 32	9 53	3	Th	11 33	11 4
4	F	9 19	9 35	4	M	10 11	10 36	4	M	9 17	9 34	4	F	10 8	10 30	4	F	10 41	11 9	4	F	11 33	0 31
5	S	9 52	10 11	5	Th	10 50	11 11	5	Th	9 51	10 9	5	F	11 45	11 18	5	S	11 39	11 9	5	W	12 2	1 36
6	S	10 31	10 51	6	W	11 33	11 57	6	W	10 28	10 48	6	Th	11 45	11 18	6	Th	12 0	12 2	6	Th	1 16	2 59
7	M	11 13	11 36	7	Th	0 48	0 22	7	Th	11 58	11 33	7	S	0 14	0 45	7	S	0 10	0 42	7	Th	2 16	4 12
8	Th	0 25	0 53	8	F	1 51	1 17	8	F	11 58	11 33	8	S	0 14	0 45	8	Th	1 18	1 42	8	Th	3 39	5 8
9	W	1 23	1 57	9	S	3 31	2 38	9	S	0 25	0 55	9	Th	1 21	2 10	9	Th	2 53	3 37	9	F	4 42	5 50
10	Th	2 39	3 23	10	M	4 57	4 17	10	M	1 31	2 18	10	W	2 40	3 58	10	W	4 14	4 47	10	F	5 30	6 28
11	F	4 4	4 41	11	Th	5 59	5 31	11	Th	3 15	4 6	11	Th	5 38	6 1	11	Th	5 13	5 36	11	M	6 9	7 6
12	S	5 12	5 39	12	W	6 50	6 25	12	W	4 50	5 26	12	F	6 21	6 40	12	F	5 56	6 15	12	M	7 25	8 21
13	S	6 30	6 30	13	Th	7 39	7 15	13	Th	5 54	6 18	13	S	6 53	7 19	13	S	6 34	6 53	13	Th	8 3	9 21
14	M	6 56	7 22	14	Th	8 26	8 3	14	Th	6 40	7 2	14	Th	7 88	7 57	14	Th	7 12	7 30	14	Th	9 37	10 22
15	Th	7 49	8 15	15	F	9 6	9 24	15	F	7 23	7 43	15	W	8 45	8 32	15	W	7 48	8 6	15	Th	10 59	11 22
16	W	8 39	9 2	16	S	9 41	9 59	16	S	8 3	8 23	16	Th	8 49	9 4	16	Th	8 23	8 39	16	Th	12 1	1 34
17	Th	9 23	9 44	17	M	10 17	10 35	17	M	8 43	9 0	17	W	9 18	9 32	17	W	8 54	9 9	17	Th	1 34	2 52
18	F	10 47	10 25	18	Th	10 54	11 13	18	Th	9 16	9 31	18	Th	9 47	10 3	18	Th	9 25	9 41	18	Th	2 10	3 31
19	S	11 10	11 8	19	W	11 32	11 51	19	W	10 48	10 35	19	F	11 0	11 22	19	F	9 58	10 16	19	Th	3 31	4 5
20	M	11 30	11 52	20	Th	0 33	0 11	20	Th	10 52	11 11	20	S	11 45	11 22	20	S	10 36	10 58	20	Th	4 45	5 51
21	M	0 37	1 0	21	W	1 32	1 0	21	Th	11 31	11 53	21	W	11 45	11 22	21	W	11 45	11 45	21	Th	5 51	6 38
22	W	1 29	1 2	22	F	3 3	2 23	22	F	11 31	11 53	22	Th	11 45	11 22	22	Th	11 45	11 45	22	Th	6 14	7 32
23	Th	2 46	2 30	23	S	4 34	3 59	23	S	0 44	1 17	23	W	1 14	1 57	23	W	0 39	1 11	23	Th	7 0	8 27
24	F	4 11	4 46	24	M	5 38	5 9	24	M	2 0	2 52	24	W	2 50	3 36	24	W	1 50	2 34	24	Th	8 51	9 14
25	S	5 16	5 43	25	Th	6 6	6 1	25	Th	3 44	4 28	25	Th	4 16	4 48	25	Th	2 34	3 17	25	Th	9 37	10 1
26	S	6 4	6 25	26	W	6 22	6 41	26	W	5 5	5 23	26	F	5 13	5 33	26	F	3 17	3 53	26	Th	10 27	10 53
27	M	7 2	7 52	27	Th	6 59	7 15	27	Th	6 30	6 47	27	S	6 23	6 48	27	S	4 25	4 51	27	Th	10 27	10 53
28	Th	8 14	8 49	28	F	7 34	7 7	28	F	7 40	7 59	28	W	7 49	8 10	28	W	5 56	6 17	28	Th	10 27	10 53
29	W	7 56	8 32	29	S	8 17	8 35	29	S	8 17	8 35	29	Th	8 51	9 19	29	Th	6 38	7 0	29	Th	10 27	10 53
30	Th	8 8	8 49	30	M	9 1	9 19	30	M	8 17	8 35	30	W	9 4	9 43	30	W	7 23	7 47	30	Th	10 27	10 53
31	Th	8 8	8 49	31	Th	8 17	8 35	31	Th	8 17	8 35	31	Th	8 51	9 19	31	Th	8 51	9 19	31	Th	10 27	10 53

Hull tides 59 minutes earlier than Goole each day.

DAILY TIDE TABLES AT GOOLE FOR THE YEAR 1907—continued.

JULY.			AUGUST.			SEPTEMBER.			OCTOBER.			NOVEMBER.			DECEMBER.		
Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.		Date.	GOOLE High Water.	
	Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.		Morn.	Aftern.
1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m	1	h m	h m
2	11 19	11 45	2	0 0	0 22	2	0 49	1 20	2	1 10	1 54	2	3 29	4 7	2	3 36	4 9
3	0 36	0 11	3	0 45	1 11	3	2 1	2 52	3	2 50	3 39	3	4 37	5 2	3	4 9	5 1
4	1 30	1 2	4	1 40	2 17	4	3 40	4 21	4	4 20	4 53	4	5 28	5 41	4	5 22	5 42
5	2 43	2 4	5	3 3	3 45	5	4 56	5 24	5	5 19	5 40	5	6 58	6 15	5	6 1	6 20
6	3 58	4 31	6	4 24	4 57	6	6 26	6 44	6	6 32	6 48	6	7 10	7 23	6	7 25	7 49
7	5 0	5 24	7	5 24	5 48	7	7 1	7 35	7	7 5	7 22	7	8 27	8 8	7	8 13	8 36
8	5 46	6 6	8	6 9	6 29	8	7 35	7 51	8	7 39	7 57	8	9 48	9 26	8	9 58	10 9
9	6 26	6 46	9	7 25	7 43	9	8 8	8 25	9	8 15	8 32	9	10 37	10 11	9	10 43	10 9
10	7 6	7 25	10	8 0	8 17	10	9 14	9 31	10	9 23	9 41	10	11 36	11 6	10	11 33	11 4
11	7 43	8 1	11	8 35	8 51	11	9 47	10 4	11	10 1	10 22	11	0 8	0 42	11	0 2	0 31
12	8 19	8 36	12	9 6	9 21	12	10 47	10 43	12	10 46	11 12	12	1 31	1 34	12	1 1	1 35
13	8 53	9 9	13	9 37	9 54	13	11 6	11 30	13	11 40	11 40	13	2 10	2 10	13	2 19	3 1
14	9 25	9 42	14	10 11	10 29	14	11 55	11 55	14	12 1	12 1	14	3 44	3 44	14	3 34	3 44
15	10 0	10 18	15	10 49	11 10	15	12 5	12 5	15	12 1	12 1	15	4 21	4 21	15	4 12	4 12
16	10 38	10 58	16	11 33	11 56	16	1 36	1 36	16	1 32	1 32	16	5 34	5 34	16	5 32	5 32
17	11 19	11 41	17	12 18	12 41	17	2 24	2 24	17	2 22	2 22	17	6 53	6 53	17	6 53	6 53
18	0 4	0 4	18	0 48	1 18	18	3 18	3 18	18	3 18	3 18	18	8 13	8 13	18	8 13	8 13
19	0 28	0 54	19	1 55	2 43	19	4 52	5 23	19	5 34	5 55	19	9 37	9 37	19	9 37	9 37
20	1 22	1 54	20	3 34	4 19	20	5 48	6 16	20	6 15	6 36	20	10 43	10 43	20	10 43	10 43
21	2 35	3 18	21	4 57	5 29	21	6 34	6 56	21	6 56	7 16	21	11 49	11 49	21	11 49	11 49
22	3 58	4 35	22	5 56	6 21	22	7 17	7 39	22	7 35	7 54	22	12 52	12 52	22	12 52	12 52
23	5 7	5 35	23	6 46	7 11	23	8 0	8 20	23	8 12	8 29	23	1 30	1 30	23	1 30	1 30
24	6 1	6 27	24	7 35	8 0	24	8 38	8 55	24	8 45	9 1	24	2 34	2 34	24	2 34	2 34
25	6 54	7 21	25	8 21	8 44	25	9 11	9 28	25	9 17	9 33	25	3 38	3 38	25	3 38	3 38
26	7 49	8 16	26	9 4	9 23	26	9 44	10 1	26	9 49	10 6	26	4 43	4 43	26	4 43	4 43
27	8 40	9 3	27	9 42	10 1	27	10 54	11 19	27	10 55	11 31	27	5 48	5 48	27	5 48	5 48
28	9 25	9 47	28	10 20	10 39	28	11 42	11 42	28	11 7	11 31	28	6 53	6 53	28	6 53	6 53
29	10 9	10 31	29	10 58	11 18	29	12 3	12 3	29	11 58	12 1	29	8 0	8 0	29	8 0	8 0
30	10 53	11 15	30	11 39	11 39	30	0 6	0 34	30	12 1	12 1	30	9 5	9 5	30	9 5	9 5
31	11 57	..	31	0 0	0 23	31	0 6	0 34	31	1 49	1 49	31	10 5	10 5	31	10 5	10 5

Hull tides 59 minutes earlier than Goole each day.

VALUE OF THE TOTAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF
WITH PROPORTION THEREOF PER

The values of the Imports represent the cost, insurance, and freight; or,
values of the Exports represent the cost and the charges of delivering

YEARS.	TOTAL IMPORTS.		EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE.	
	Total Value.	Proportion per Head of Population of United Kingdom.	Total Value.	Proportion per Head of Population of United Kingdom.
	£	£ s. d.	£	£ s. d.
1888	387,635,743	10 10 3	234,534,912	6 7 2
1889	427,637,595	11 10 1	248,935,195	6 13 11
1890	420,691,997	11 4 6	263,530,585	7 0 7
1891	435,441,264	11 10 5	247,235,150	6 10 10
1892	423,793,882	11 2 3	*227,216,399	5 19 2
1893	404,688,178	10 10 3	218,259,718	5 13 5
1894	408,344,810	10 10 2	216,005,637	5 11 2
1895	416,689,658	10 12 6	226,128,246	5 15 4
1896	441,808,904	11 3 2	240,145,551	6 1 4
1897	451,028,960	11 5 7	234,219,708	5 17 2
1898	470,544,702	11 13 1	233,359,240	5 15 7
1899	485,035,583	11 17 11	†264,492,211	6 9 9
1900	523,075,163	12 14 3	291,191,996	7 1 6
1901	521,990,198	12 11 3	280,022,376	6 14 9
1902	528,391,274	12 11 10	283,423,966	6 15 1
1903	542,600,289	12 16 1	290,800,108	6 17 3
1904	551,038,628	12 17 6	300,711,040	7 0 6
1905	565,019,917	13 1 5	329,816,614	7 12 7

NOTE.—The above Accounts are exclusive of Bullion and Specie
* Tobacco manufactured in bond was included with the Exports of Foreign
has been included under the

† Inclusive of the value of ships and boats (new) with their
these Exports was not included in

**MERCHANDISE INTO AND FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM,
HEAD OF TOTAL POPULATION.**

when goods are consigned for sale, the latest sale value of such goods. The goods on board the ship, and are known as the "free on board" values.

EXPORTS.		TOTAL OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.		YEARS.
Of Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total Exports.	Total Value.	Proportion per Head of Population of United Kingdom.	
£	£	£	£ s. d.	
64,042,629	298,577,541	686,213,284	18 12 2	1888
66,657,484	315,592,679	743,230,274	19 19 10	1889
64,721,533	328,252,118	748,944,115	19 19 7	1890
61,878,568	309,113,718	744,554,982	19 13 11	1891
*64,423,767	291,640,166	715,434,048	18 15 3	1892
58,878,552	277,138,270	681,826,448	17 14 3	1893
57,780,230	273,785,867	682,130,677	17 11 1	1894
59,704,161	285,832,407	702,522,065	17 18 3	1895
56,233,663	296,379,214	738,188,118	18 12 10	1896
59,954,410	294,174,118	745,203,078	18 12 9	1897
60,654,748	294,013,988	764,558,690	18 18 8	1898
65,042,447	329,534,658	814,570,241	19 19 7	1899
63,181,758	354,373,754	877,448,917	21 6 5	1900
67,841,892	347,864,268	869,854,466	20 18 8	1901
65,814,813	349,238,779	877,630,053	20 18 4	1902
69,573,564	360,373,672	902,973,961	21 6 3	1903
70,304,281	371,015,321	922,053,949	21 10 11	1904
77,779,913	407,596,527	972,616,444	22 10 1	1905

and of Foreign Merchandise transhipped under Bond.
and Colonial Produce prior to 1892. In that and subsequent years it
head of British Produce
machinery in 1899 and subsequent years. The value of
the returns prior to the year 1899.

QUANTITIES OF THE UNDER-MENTIONED ARTICLES
THE TOTAL POPULATION OF

ARTICLES.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
IMPORTED ARTICLES.							
Bac'n and H'ms*...lbs.	13-10	14-09	11-72	13-27	14-60	15-84	17-88
Beef, Salted and } Fresh* }	6-19	6-70	5-67	6-58	6-70	8-08	8-79
Beef (fr'm import'd } live oxen and } bulls)*† }	9-02	10-14	6-85	9-57	8-04	10-76	11-66
Butter* "	6-14	6-23	6-58	7-25	7-90	8-43	8-81
Margarine* "	3-63	3-80	3-74	3-17	2-66	2-59	2-58
Cheese* "	5-85	6-38	5-86	6-37	5-92	6-20	7-14
Cocoa, Raw "	0-57	0-55	0-54	0-58	0-62	0-62	0-70
Cocoa or Chocolate, } ground, prepared, } or in any way } manufactured .. }	0-06	0-06	0-06	0-06	0-07	0-08	0-20
Coffee "	0-76	0-74	0-69	0-68	0-70	0-69	0-68
Corn—Wheat "	195-01	188-26	188-58	201-11	232-63	197-29	175-19
Maize "	78-76	103-25	95-53	101-59	96-76	144-70	148-58
Wheat Mealand } Flour }	49-00	64-31	58-75	54-60	51-77	59-15	51-74
Currants & Raisins. "	4-82	4-58	5-01	4-90	4-96	4-93	4-78
Eggs* No.	33-68	35-01	34-35	36-61	38-88	40-11	42-06
Meat, Preserved,) otherwise than -lbs.) by salting* }	2-11	2-09	1-55	1-49	2-28	1-83	1-71
Mutton, Fresh* .. "	4-91	4-99	5-73	6-61	7-45	8-18	8-93
Pork, Salted and } Fresh* }	0-92	0-98	1-03	1-12	1-40	1-50	1-57
Potatoes* "	9-34	8-70	8-13	7-67	10-70	6-24	10-88
Rice "	8-85	8-90	8-53	7-25	7-98	6-47	8-59
Sugar, Raw¶ † "	47-22	47-19	45-62	40-10	47-92	43-61	36-83
" Refined¶ ¶ .. "	32-93	30-60	33-13	39-81	39-99	41-39	43-74
Tea "	5-35	5-43	5-40	5-51	5-65	5-75	5-79
Tobacco "	1-61	1-64	1-62	1-66	1-66	1-72	1-75
Wine gall.	0-39	0-38	0-37	0-35	0-37	0-40	0-39
Spirits, Potable (Foreign)..proof gall.	0-22	0-21	0-20	0-20	0-21	0-21	0-21
EXCISABLE ARTICLES.							
Spirits, Potable (British)..prcof gall.	0-81	0-82	0-78	0-77	0-79	0-81	0-82
Total Spirits, Potable (Imported and Ex- cisable) .. proof gall.	1-04	1-03	0-98	0-97	1-00	1-01	1-02
Beer (British)§..galls.	30-16	29-75	29-55	29-41	29-58	30-79	31-29

* These Articles being free of Duty (with such articles as Sugar, Corn, and Rice, which in being the Quantities Retained

† Based on the estimated produce of meat

‡ The Amount of Raw Sugar consumed per head of the population is inclusive of the § Calculated at a standard gravity of 1055°.

|| Duty imposed on Foreign Grain, &c.,

RETAINED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION PER HEAD OF
THE UNITED KINGDOM.

1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	ARTICLES.
19-80	20-06	19-50	19-87	17-12	16-35	17-23	17-28	IMPORTED ARTICLES.
9-01	10-80	11-67	12-59	10-13	11-38	11-62	13-34	<i>lbs.</i> Bacon and Hams.*
10-51	9-14	9-18	9-37	7-81	8-86	9-31	9-48	" { Beef, Salted and Fresh.*
8-73	9-17	9-05	9-85	10-49	10-57	10-87	10-57	" { Beef (from im- port'd live oxen and bulls).*†
2-47	2-58	2-47	2-55	2-53	2-30	2-49	2-80	" Butter.*
6-33	6-39	7-21	6-82	6-66	6-99	6-82	6-19	" Margarine.*
0-79	0-83	0-92	1-02	1-09	0-97	1-06	1-07	" Cheese.*
								" Cocoa, Raw.
0-16	0-13	0-16	0-18	0-19	0-23	0-23	0-20	" { Cocoa or Chocolate, ground, prepared, or in any way manufactured.
0-68	0-71	0-71	0-76	0-68	0-71	0-67	0-67	" Coffee.
179-70	181-05	186-22	187-08	215-76	232-53	255-16	252-07	" Corn—Wheat.
155-70	170-26	145-93	137-58	118-53	132-08	111-71	107-69	" Maize.
57-17	61-75	57-55	59-98	51-57	54-37	38-40	30-75	" { Wheat Meal and Flour.
4-81	4-81	3-70	4-09	4-77	4-51	4-48	4-56	" Currants & Raisins
42-84	47-53	49-18	49-25	54-08	55-70	55-35	51-75	No. Eggs.*
1-40	1-62	1-91	1-90	2-11	1-82	1-97	1-93	<i>lbs.</i> { Meat, Preserved, otherwise than by salting.*
9-18	9-46	9-22	9-71	9-76	10-60	9-13	9-87	" Mutton, Fresh.*
2-21	2-54	2-52	2-76	2-26	2-46	2-20	1-81	" { Pork, Salted and Fresh.*
18-60	13-97	23-98	18-53	14-61	23-52	25-66	9-03	" Potatoes.*
7-52	8-76	10-14	11-43	18-17	14-34	14-50	15-87	" Rice.
39-70	35-44	35-27	32-18	35-05	33-28	38-17	37-69	" Sugar, Raw.* ;
45-07	48-42	51-91	56-81	48-90	49-02	46-02	33-02	" " Refined.*
5-83	5-95	6-07	6-16	6-06	6-03	5-99	5-93	" Tea.
1-82	1-88	1-95	1-89	1-92	1-93	1-95	1-96	" Tobacco.
0-41	0-41	0-38	0-37	0-36	0-33	0-28	0-28	<i>gall.</i> Wine.
0-20	0-21	0-21	0-21	0-21	0-19	0-17	0-16	<i>proof gall.</i> Spirits, Potable (Foreign).
0-84	0-88	0-90	0-88	0-84	0-80	0-78	0-75	EXCISABLE ARTICLES.
1-03	1-09	1-12	1-09	1-05	0-99	0-95	0-91	<i>proof gall.</i> Spirits, Potable (British).
31-76	32-53	31-56	30-77	30-24	29-69	28-79	27-70	<i>proof gall.</i> Total Spirits, Potable (Imported and Excisable).
								<i>galls.</i> Beer (British). §

the year 1902 were subject to Duty) the imports, less the Re-exports, have been taken as for Home Consumption.

from live cattle when slaughtered.

proportionate Amount of Raw Sugar which was refined and afterwards re-exported.

† Duty imposed on Sugar from April 19th, 1901.

from April 15th, 1902.

MEMORANDA AS TO ACTS OF PARLIAMENT RESTRAINING
EXPORTATION OF TOOLS &C. USED IN COTTON LINEN WOOLLEN
AND SILK MANUFACTURES.

BY Act of 14 Geo. III. c. 75 being "An Act to prevent the Exportation to Foreign Parts of Utensils made use of in the Cotton Linen Woollen and Silk Manufactures of this Kingdom" persons were prohibited from exporting "Tools or Utensils" used in the Cotton Linen Woollen and Silk Manufactures of the Kingdom.

By Act of 21 Geo. III. c. 37 being an Act to explain and amend the last-mentioned Act it was enacted—

That if at any time after the 24th day of June 1781 any person or persons in Great Britain or Ireland shall upon any pretence whatsoever load or put on board or pack or cause or procure to be laden put on board or packed in order to be loaded or put on board of any ship or vessel which shall not be bound directly to some port or place in Great Britain or Ireland or shall lade or cause or procure to be laden on board any boat or other vessel or shall bring or cause to be brought to any quay wharf or other place in order to be so laden or put on board any such ship or vessel *any machine engine tool press paper utensil or implement* whatsoever which now is or at any time or times hereafter shall or may be used in or proper for the preparing working pressing finishing or completing of the *Woollen Cotton Linen or Silk Manufactures* of this Kingdom or any or either of them or any other goods wherein Wool Cotton Linen or Silk or any or either of them are or is used or any part or parts of such machine engine tool press paper utensil or implement by what name or names soever the same shall be called or known; or any *model or plan or models or plans* of any such machine engine tool press paper utensil or implement or any part or parts thereof.

Any Justice might grant a warrant to seize the machines &c. and on conviction the person offending should forfeit the machines &c. and a sum of £200 and be imprisoned for twelve months without bail and until the forfeiture should be paid.

Penalties were also imposed on the Masters of Ships and Custom House Officers conniving at any offence and on persons making machines &c.

TABLE

SHOWING THE NUMBER OF DAYS BETWEEN ANY TWO DATES; ALSO SHOWING THE NUMBER OF DAYS FROM ANY DAY THROUGHOUT THE YEAR TO THE 31ST OF DECEMBER, THE USUAL PERIOD TO WHICH INTEREST IS CALCULATED.

JANUARY.			FEBRUARY.			MARCH.			APRIL.			MAY.			JUNE.		
Jan. Number.	Days to Dec. 31.		Feb. Number.	Days to Dec. 31.		Mar. Number.	Days to Dec. 31.		April Number.	Days to Dec. 31.		May. Number.	Days to Dec. 31.		June Number.	Days to Dec. 31.	
1	364	1	32	333	1	60	305	1	91	274	1	121	244	1	152	213	
2	363	2	33	332	2	61	304	2	92	273	2	122	243	2	153	212	
3	362	3	34	331	3	62	303	3	93	272	3	123	242	3	154	211	
4	361	4	35	330	4	63	302	4	94	271	4	124	241	4	155	210	
5	360	5	36	329	5	64	301	5	95	270	5	125	240	5	156	209	
6	359	6	37	328	6	65	300	6	96	269	6	126	239	6	157	208	
7	358	7	38	327	7	66	299	7	97	268	7	127	238	7	158	207	
8	357	8	39	326	8	67	298	8	98	267	8	128	237	8	159	206	
9	356	9	40	325	9	68	297	9	99	266	9	129	236	9	160	205	
10	355	10	41	324	10	69	296	10	100	265	10	130	235	10	161	204	
11	354	11	42	323	11	70	295	11	101	264	11	131	234	11	162	203	
12	353	12	43	322	12	71	294	12	102	263	12	132	233	12	163	202	
13	352	13	44	321	13	72	293	13	103	262	13	133	232	13	164	201	
14	351	14	45	320	14	73	292	14	104	261	14	134	231	14	165	200	
15	350	15	46	319	15	74	291	15	105	260	15	135	230	15	166	199	
16	349	16	47	318	16	75	290	16	106	259	16	136	229	16	167	198	
17	348	17	48	317	17	76	289	17	107	258	17	137	228	17	168	197	
18	347	18	49	316	18	77	288	18	108	257	18	138	227	18	169	196	
19	346	19	50	315	19	78	287	19	109	256	19	139	226	19	170	195	
20	345	20	51	314	20	79	286	20	110	255	20	140	225	20	171	194	
21	344	21	52	313	21	80	285	21	111	254	21	141	224	21	172	193	
22	343	22	53	312	22	81	284	22	112	253	22	142	223	22	173	192	
23	342	23	54	311	23	82	283	23	113	252	23	143	222	23	174	191	
24	341	24	55	310	24	83	282	24	114	251	24	144	221	24	175	190	
25	340	25	56	309	25	84	281	25	115	250	25	145	220	25	176	189	
26	339	26	57	308	26	85	280	26	116	249	26	146	219	26	177	188	
27	338	27	58	307	27	86	279	27	117	248	27	147	218	27	178	187	
28	337	28	59	306	28	87	278	28	118	247	28	148	217	28	179	186	
29	336	29			29	88	277	29	119	246	29	149	216	29	180	185	
30	335	30			30	89	276	30	120	245	30	150	215	30	181	184	
31	334	31			31	90	275				31	151	214				

TABLE
SHOWING THE NUMBER OF DAYS BETWEEN ANY TWO DATES, &c.—*continued*.

JULY.			AUGUST.			SEPTEMBER.			OCTOBER.			NOVEMBER.			DECEMBER.		
July.	Number.	Days to Dec. 31.	Aug.	Number.	Days to Dec. 31.	Sept.	Number.	Days to Dec. 31.	Oct.	Number.	Days to Dec. 31.	Nov.	Number.	Days to Dec. 31.	Dec.	Number.	Days to Dec. 31.
1	182	183	1	213	152	1	244	121	1	274	91	1	305	60	1	335	30
2	183	182	2	214	151	2	245	120	2	275	90	2	306	59	2	336	29
3	184	181	3	215	150	3	246	119	3	276	89	3	307	58	3	337	28
4	185	180	4	216	149	4	247	118	4	277	88	4	308	57	4	338	27
5	186	179	5	217	148	5	248	117	5	278	87	5	309	56	5	339	26
6	187	178	6	218	147	6	249	116	6	279	86	6	310	55	6	340	25
7	188	177	7	219	146	7	250	115	7	280	85	7	311	54	7	341	24
8	189	176	8	220	145	8	251	114	8	281	84	8	312	53	8	342	23
9	190	175	9	221	144	9	252	113	9	282	83	9	313	52	9	343	22
10	191	174	10	222	143	10	253	112	10	283	82	10	314	51	10	344	21
11	192	173	11	223	142	11	254	111	11	284	81	11	315	50	11	345	20
12	193	172	12	224	141	12	255	110	12	285	80	12	316	49	12	346	19
13	194	171	13	225	140	13	256	109	13	286	79	13	317	48	13	347	18
14	195	170	14	226	139	14	257	108	14	287	78	14	318	47	14	348	17
15	196	169	15	227	138	15	258	107	15	288	77	15	319	46	15	349	16
16	197	168	16	228	137	16	259	106	16	289	76	16	320	45	16	350	15
17	198	167	17	229	136	17	260	105	17	290	75	17	321	44	17	351	14
18	199	166	18	230	135	18	261	104	18	291	74	18	322	43	18	352	13
19	200	165	19	231	134	19	262	103	19	292	73	19	323	42	19	353	12
20	201	164	20	232	133	20	263	102	20	293	72	20	324	41	20	354	11
21	202	163	21	233	132	21	264	101	21	294	71	21	325	40	21	355	10
22	203	162	22	234	131	22	265	100	22	295	70	22	326	39	22	356	9
23	204	161	23	235	130	23	266	99	23	296	69	23	327	38	23	357	8
24	205	160	24	236	129	24	267	98	24	297	68	24	328	37	24	358	7
25	206	159	25	237	128	25	268	97	25	298	67	25	329	36	25	359	6
26	207	158	26	238	127	26	269	96	26	299	66	26	330	35	26	360	5
27	208	157	27	239	126	27	270	95	27	300	65	27	331	34	27	361	4
28	209	156	28	240	125	28	271	94	28	301	64	28	332	33	28	362	3
29	210	155	29	241	124	29	272	93	29	302	63	29	333	32	29	363	2
30	211	154	30	242	123	30	273	92	30	303	62	30	334	31	30	364	1
31	212	153	31	243	122	31			31	304	61	31			31	365	

THE ENGLISH MILE COMPARED WITH OTHER EUROPEAN MEASURES.

	English Statute Mile.	English Geog. Mile.	French Kilomètre.	German Geog. Mile.	Russian Verst.
English Statute Mile ..	1·000	0·867	1·609	0·217	1·508
English Geog. Mile	1·153	1·000	1·855	0·250	1·738
Kilomètre	0·621	0·540	1·000	0·135	0·937
German Geog. Mile	4·610	4·000	7·420	1·000	6·353
Russian Verst.....	0·663	0·575	1·067	0·144	1·000
Austrian Mile	4·714	4·089	7·586	1·022	7·112
Dutch Ure	3·458	3·000	5·565	0·750	5·215
Norwegian Mile	7·021	6·091	11·299	1·523	10·589
Swedish Mile	6·644	5·764	10·692	1·441	10·019
Danish Mile	4·682	4·062	7·536	1·016	7·078
Swiss Stunde	2·987	2·592	4·808	0·648	4·505

	Austrian Mile.	Dutch Ure.	Norwe- gian Mile.	Swedish Mile.	Danish Mile.	Swiss Stunde.
English Statute Mile ..	0·212	0·289	0·142	0·151	0·213	0·335
English Geog. Mile	0·245	0·333	0·164	0·169	0·246	0·386
Kilomètre	0·132	0·180	0·088	0·094	0·133	0·208
German Geog. Mile	0·978	1·333	0·657	0·694	0·985	1·543
Russian Verst	0·141	0·192	0·094	0·100	0·142	0·222
Austrian Mile	1·000	1·363	0·672	0·710	1·006	1·578
Dutch Ure	0·734	1·000	0·493	0·520	0·738	1·157
Norwegian Mile	1·489	2·035	1·000	1·057	1·499	2·350
Swedish Mile	1·409	1·921	0·948	1·000	1·419	2·224
Danish Mile	0·994	1·354	0·667	0·705	1·080	1·567
Swiss Stunde	0·634	0·864	0·425	0·449	0·638	1·000

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF DAYS FROM ANY DAY OF ONE MONTH TO THE SAME DAY OF ANY OTHER MONTH.
NUMBER OF DAYS FROM DAY TO DAY.

FROM TO	JAN.	FEB.	MAR.	APRIL	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG.	SEPT.	OCT.	NOV.	DEC.
JANUARY ..	365	31	59	90	120	151	181	212	243	273	304	334
FEBRUARY..	334	365	28	59	89	120	150	181	212	242	273	303
MARCH....	306	337	365	31	61	92	122	153	184	214	245	275
APRIL.....	275	306	334	365	30	61	91	122	153	183	214	244
MAY	245	276	304	335	365	31	61	92	123	153	184	214
JUNE.....	214	245	273	304	334	365	30	61	92	122	153	183
JULY.....	184	215	243	274	304	335	365	31	62	92	123	153
AUGUST ...	153	184	212	243	273	304	334	365	31	61	92	122
SEPTEMBER	122	153	181	212	242	273	303	334	365	30	61	91
OCTOBER ..	92	123	151	182	212	243	273	304	335	365	31	61
NOVEMBER.	61	92	120	151	181	212	242	273	304	334	365	30
DECEMBER.	31	62	90	121	151	182	212	243	274	304	335	365

Example of Use of Table:—To find the number of days from 16th August to 27th February. Find August in the side column and February at the top; the number at the intersection, viz., 184, is the number of days from 16th August to 16th February; and 11 (the difference between 16 and 27), and the sum 195 is the number required. Similarly, the number from 16th August to 5th February is 184 less 11, or 173.

TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS COMMONLY USED IN BUSINESS.

A/cAccount.
 CCurrency.
 \$A dollar.
 E. E.Errors excepted.
 E. & O. E. ..Errors and omissions
 excepted.
 F. O. B.Free on board (delivered
 on deck without expense to the
 ship).
 F. P. A.Free of particular
 average.
 INST.....Present month.
 PROX.Next month.
 ULT.....Last month.
 D/DDays after date.
 M/D.....Months after date.

D/SDays after sight.
 %.....Per cent.
 @ ₧ lbAt per pound.
 B/LBill of lading.
 AD VALOREM ..According to value.
 AFFIDAVITStatement on oath.
 AFFIRMATION..Statement without an
 oath.
 AGIOThe premium borne
 by a better sort of money above
 an inferior.
 ASSETSA term for property in
 contradistinction to liabilities.
 BANCO.....A continental term
 for bank money at Hamburg
 and other places.

DEAD FREIGHT.—The damage payable by one who engages to load a ship fully,
 and fails to do so.

DEVIATION, in marine insurance, is that divergence from the voyage insured
 which releases the underwriter from his risk.

DISCOUNT.—An allowance made for payment of money before due.

POLICY.—The document containing the contract of insurance. A *Valued Policy*
 is when the interest insured is valued. An *Open Policy* is one in which
 the amount is left for subsequent proof. In an open policy where the
 value shipped does not equal the value insured, the difference is termed
over insurance; and the proportionable amount of premium returnable to
 the insurer is called a *return for short interest*.

PRIMAGE.—A small allowance for the shipmaster's care of goods, now generally
 included in the freight.

PRO RATA.—Payment in proportion to the various interests concerned.

QUID PRO QUO.—Giving one thing for another.

RESPONDENTIA.—A contract of loan by which goods in a ship are hypothecated
 to the lender, as in bottomry.

ULLAGE.—The quantity a cask wants of being full.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF THE CALENDAR, FOR THE YEAR 1907.

Golden Number.....	8	Dominical Letter.....	F
Solar Cycle.....	12	Roman Indiction	5
Epact	16		

Year 6620 of the Julian Period.

- „ 1911 from the Birth of Christ.
- „ 2660 „ „ Foundation of Rome according to Varron.
- „ 7415 of the World (Constantinopolitan account).
- „ 7399 „ „ (Alexandrian account).
- „ 5668 of the Jewish Era commences on September 9th, 1907.
- „ 1325 of the Mahommedan Era commences on February 14th, 1907.

Ramadân (Month of Abstinence observed by the Turks) commences on October 8th, 1907.

FIXED AND MOVABLE FESTIVALS, ANNIVERSARIES, ETC.

Epiphany	Jan. 6	Ascension Day	May 9
Septuagesima Sunday	Jan. 27	Pentecost—Whit Sunday....	„ 19
Quinquagesima Sunday	Feb. 10	Trinity Sunday	„ 26
Ash Wednesday.....	„ 13	Corpus Christi	„ 30
First Sunday in Lent	„ 17	St. John Baptist—Midsummer	
St. Patrick	Mar. 17	Day	June 24
Palm Sunday.....	„ 24	St. Michael—Michaelmas Day	Sept. 29
Lady Day	„ 25	King Edward VII. born (1841)	Nov. 9
Good Friday	„ 29	St. Andrew	„ 30
Easter Sunday	„ 31	Christmas Day (Wednesday).	Dec. 25

THE FOUR QUARTERS OF THE YEAR.

		H.	M.
Spring Quarter begins	March 21st	6	33 afternoon.
Summer „ „	June 22nd	2	23 „
Autumn „ „	September 24th	5	09 morning.
Winter „ „	December 22nd	11	52 afternoon.

BANK HOLIDAYS. LAW SITTINGS. ECLIPSES.

REGISTERS OF BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS.

These are now kept at Somerset House, and may be searched on payment of the fee of one shilling. If a certified copy of any entry be required, the charge for that, in addition to the shilling for the search, is two shillings and sevenpence, which includes a penny for stamp duty. The registers contain an entry of births, deaths, and marriages since 1st July, 1837.

BANK HOLIDAYS, 1907.

ENGLAND.

Easter Monday	April	1
Whit Monday.....	May	20
First Monday in August.....	August	5
Boxing Day (Thursday)	December	26

SCOTLAND.

New Year	January	1
Good Friday	March	29
First Monday in May	May	6
First Monday in August.....	August	5
Boxing Day	December	26

LAW SITTINGS, 1907.

	Begin.		End.
Hilary Sittings.....	January 11	March 27
Easter „	April 9	May 17
Trinity „	May 28	August 12
Michael. „	Oct. 24	December 21

ECLIPSES, 1907.

In the year 1907 there will be two Eclipses of the Sun and two of the Moon:—

A Total Eclipse of the Sun, January 14th, invisible at Greenwich.

A Partial Eclipse of the Moon, January 29th, invisible at Greenwich.

An Annular Eclipse of the Sun, July 10th, invisible at Greenwich.

A Partial Eclipse of the Moon, July 25th, partly visible at Greenwich.

CALENDAR FOR 1907.

January.						February.						March.						
§	...	6	13	20	27	§	...	3	10	17	24	§	...	3	10	17	24	31
M	...	7	14	21	28	M	...	4	11	18	25	M	...	4	11	18	25	...
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	Tu	...	5	12	19	26	Tu	...	5	12	19	26	...
W	2	9	16	23	30	W	...	6	13	20	27	W	...	6	13	20	27	...
Th	3	10	17	24	31	Th	...	7	14	21	28	Th	...	7	14	21	28	...
F	4	11	18	25	...	F	1	8	15	22	...	F	1	8	15	22	29	...
S	5	12	19	26	...	S	2	9	16	23	...	S	2	9	16	23	30	...
April.						May.						June.						
§	...	7	14	21	28	§	...	5	12	19	26	§	...	2	9	16	23	30
M	1	8	15	22	29	M	...	6	13	20	27	M	...	3	10	17	24	...
Tu	2	9	16	23	30	Tu	...	7	14	21	28	Tu	...	4	11	18	25	...
W	3	10	17	24	...	W	1	8	15	22	29	W	...	5	12	19	26	...
Th	4	11	18	25	...	Th	2	9	16	23	30	Th	...	6	13	20	27	...
F	5	12	19	26	...	F	3	10	17	24	31	F	...	7	14	21	28	...
S	6	13	20	27	...	S	4	11	18	25	...	S	1	8	15	22	29	...
July.						August.						September.						
§	...	7	14	21	28	§	...	4	11	18	25	§	1	8	15	22	29	
M	1	8	15	22	29	M	...	5	12	19	26	M	2	9	16	23	30	
Tu	2	9	16	23	30	Tu	...	6	13	20	27	Tu	3	10	17	24	...	
W	3	10	17	24	31	W	...	7	14	21	28	W	4	11	18	25	...	
Th	4	11	18	25	...	Th	1	8	15	22	29	Th	5	12	19	26	...	
F	5	12	19	26	...	F	2	9	16	23	30	F	6	13	20	27	...	
S	6	13	20	27	...	S	3	10	17	24	31	S	7	14	21	28	...	
October.						November.						December.						
§	...	6	13	20	27	§	...	3	10	17	24	§	1	8	15	22	29	
M	...	7	14	21	28	M	...	4	11	18	25	M	2	9	16	23	30	
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	Tu	...	5	12	19	26	Tu	3	10	17	24	31	
W	2	9	16	23	30	W	...	6	13	20	27	W	4	11	18	25	...	
Th	3	10	17	24	31	Th	...	7	14	21	28	Th	5	12	19	26	...	
F	4	11	18	25	...	F	1	8	15	22	29	F	6	13	20	27	...	
S	5	12	19	26	...	S	2	9	16	23	30	S	7	14	21	28	...	

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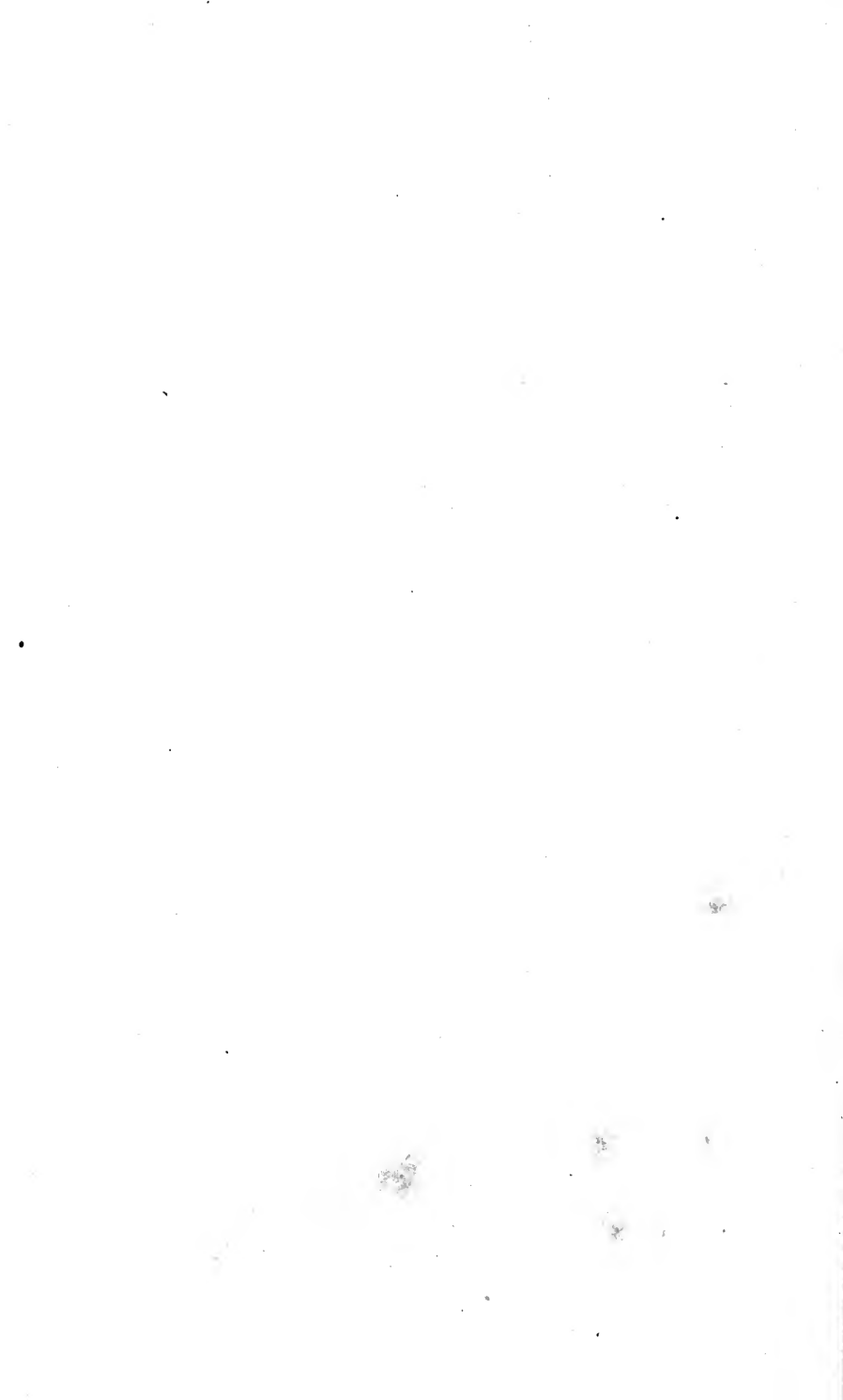


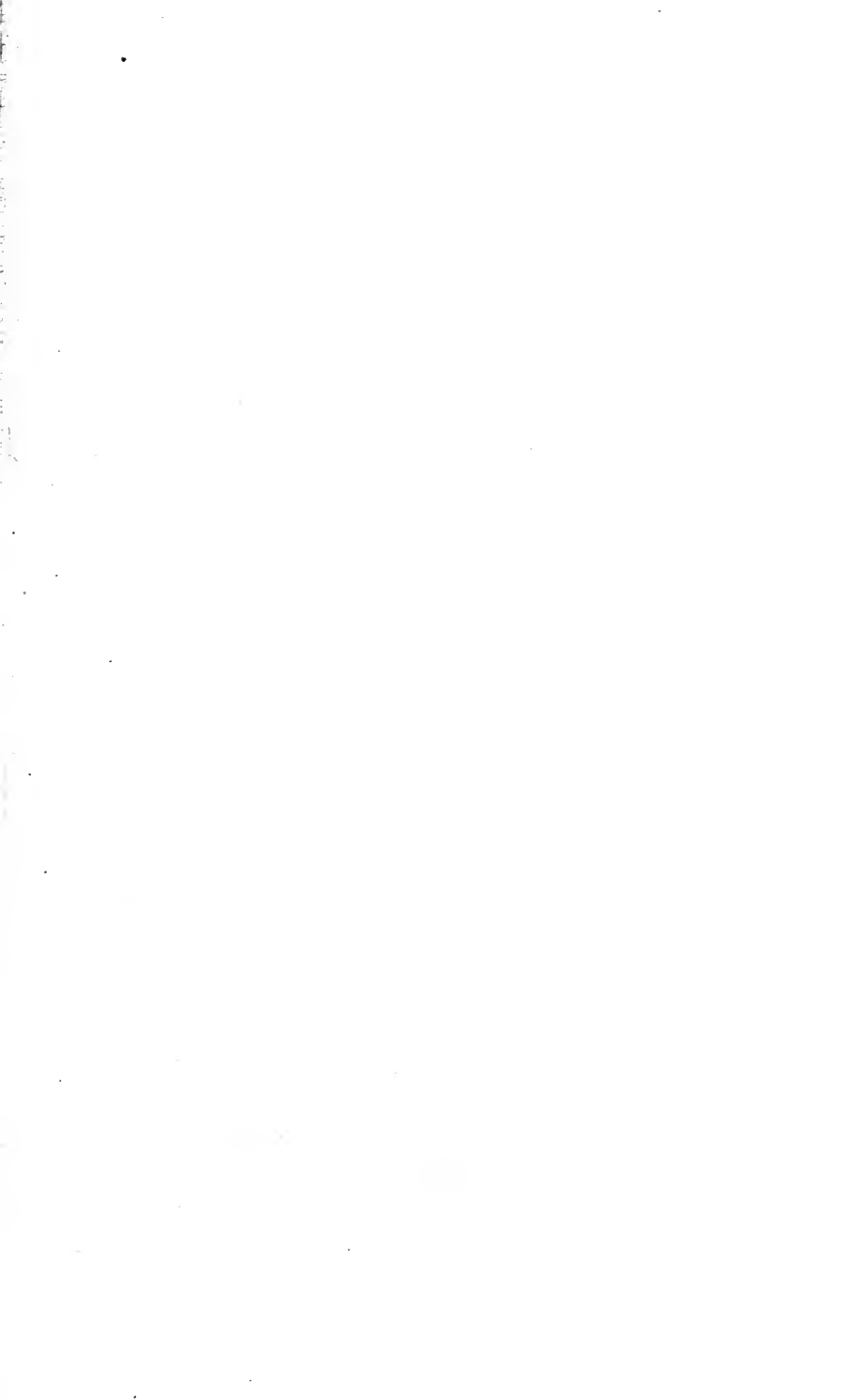
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